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One learns only when
having a good time."

Anatole France.

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BEGINNING TEACHING

Summer Sessions in State Teachers Colleges

BY

JOS. E. AVENT, Ph. D.,

PROFESSOR OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY
UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE

AN EXHAUSTIVE STUDY OF THE MODERN
SUMMER SESSION MOVEMENT IN THESE
INSTITUTIONS OF AMERICA

Pages xv-393 Price \$3.19

BEGINNING TEACHING

By

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University of Tennessee
Knoxville*

Author of "SUMMER SESSIONS
IN STATE TEACHERS COLLEGES"

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TO
THAT PRINCE OF AMERICAN TEACHERS,
W. C. BAGLEY

24056



PREFACE

1. BEGINNING TEACHING has been written to serve the needs of that great host of young people who are about to begin to work, or have already so begun, in the most important of all vocations beyond that of parenthood. According to the Census of 1920 there were in the United States 761,766 teachers. Of this number some 680,000 were serving in elementary and high schools. Of the latter group, the number of those just beginning to teach each year has been estimated to be anywhere from 85,000 to more than 130,000. The probability is that more than 100,000 young people are *beginning teaching each year*. The best available data seem to indicate that no more than, say, 30,000 of this great army of teachers have achieved minimum standard professional preparation or better; that probably 35,000 more of them are high school graduates with not over twelve weeks of summer session work; and that probably another 30,000 of them are in qualification below that of high school graduation. In consideration of the vital and tragic needs of 100,000 *beginning teachers* this book has been written.

2. It is believed that this book will serve one or more of the following purposes:

a. To be used as a text in the Technique of Teaching and in School Management, to accompany or precede observation and practice-teaching; or

b. To be used in summer sessions as a text in Methods and Management; or

c. To be used as a text in Theory and Practice of

Teaching by *beginning teachers* who do not have the opportunity to attend a normal school before actually undertaking to teach; or

d. To be used as a guide into successful teaching experience by *beginning teachers* of all degrees of preparation.

3. As the title implies, this book is written for *beginning teachers*, to point out to them at the beginning of their careers the excellences to achieve and the errors to avoid. The first year is, indeed, a critical one. More than fifty per cent of the failures of teachers occur in the first year of service. This book is to help those *beginning teachers*, who may read it, avoid failure and achieve success from the beginning.

4. To teachers of experience this book will be found useful in its suggestions by which they may judge the quality of their own instruction for excellences already realized and errors yet to be eliminated.

5. To the many *beginning teachers* whose teaching he has observed from time to time, to critic teachers and supervisors with whom he has been associated, and to normal school seniors in their first teaching from whose performances he has silently drawn much of the content of this book, the author hereby expresses his lasting obligations.

6. To Mrs. Elizabeth Cates for drawings for cuts in this book, to Miss Mamie Johnston for reading the manuscript and for offering suggestions as to form, and to Mrs. Myrtle Harris Phillips for typewriting the manuscript the author also expresses his particular obligations.

JOS. E. AVENT

UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE,
KNOXVILLE, MAY 10, 1926.

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B. Errors: permitting children to whisper; attending to outside duties in school hours; language mannerisms; social attention to lady teachers by larger boys; answering notes; ridicule, satire, nagging, slighting remarks; "banging" bell for quiet; watching, rather than trusting; forming habits to be broken later; letting children make faces; forgetting requirements; children's leaving seats without permission; children's leaving school without permission; arguing with children; not being obeyed; breaking in on reciting pupils; undirected schoolroom play; repressing child-

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BEGINNING TEACHING

BEGINNING TEACHING

CHAPTER I

BEGINNING TEACHERS

1. Who they are. We have in mind three classes of *beginning teachers*:

a. Those who are seniors at normal schools, teachers' colleges, and schools of education, or departments of education in colleges, and are doing a brief teaching service, as a laboratory exercise in their training for their regular teaching. Their beginning term of service, in accordance with the plans used in their state and their school, may be what is called "practice teaching". It may be for six weeks, twelve weeks, eighteen weeks, or even a year. If they have a short term of such teaching, they may give practically their whole time to such teaching. If they have a long term, as a year, they may do only one subject at a time, teaching that in much the same way as they would carry a class for recitation by themselves. They are under the direct supervision of supervisors or critic teachers, so that they are able from the beginning to do good teaching, avoiding the many errors that *beginning teachers*, without such guidance and supervision, fall into easily. Fortunate is that teacher who at the beginning of his or her career has a good, sympathetic person, who really knows how to achieve the successes and avoid the failures of

teaching, to act as the advisor, or director, or supervisor, of him or her in those critical days of *beginning teaching*.

b. New teachers without training. Probably thirty thousand or more teachers yearly enter the teaching vocation with less than high school education and possibly one summer school; a like number of high school graduates enter it every year with only a modicum of professional training gained through attendance at summer schools, or at normal training high schools, or through other brief opportunity. None of these begin their teaching under the guidance of a good teacher and supervisor. They are lacking in that professional experience which could have come to them easily in opportunities mentioned in paragraph *a* above. It is not necessary to enter into a discussion of the reasons as to why they have not had that training and that experience in *practice teaching* under the guidance of persons capable of putting them into possession of good teaching technique from the very first. Suffice it to say, they have not had that training, and they need it badly. They are *beginning* to teach, and are anxious to succeed from the first. In some states they may actually get some training through the service of local supervisors, if the supervisors have a mastery of good teaching technique, tact, sympathy, and not too many others to supervise and help. This training in service is as yet done only on a small scale, and the majority of *beginning* teachers in this group must depend upon themselves and their own resources for the inspiration and help that will cause them to succeed, if they succeed at all. Their own initiative is their chief source of direction. They will get "experience", but it may be an unsuccessful experience. This book is written to help this class into successful experience.

c. **Experienced persons who wish to place their teaching upon a professional plane**, rather than continue on a hit-or-miss level. The word "experienced" is used in this paragraph to denote several years spent in charge of a school or a room. Many teachers who have had several years of experience, not having had opportunity for thorough preparation before beginning to teach, recognize their own deficiencies and desire to make a decided improvement in their teaching. They regard themselves, to all intents and purposes, as *beginning teachers*. Yet the author does not put the whole blame on them. The state had provided so little encouragement, in the way of remuneration, for them to qualify themselves for real teaching, so little opportunity for them to get a real education to fit them for teaching, that the blame may be put even yet upon the state that such teacher conditions prevail. As so many of these persons are anxious to learn how to do good work in the school room, they are not cast aside, but are retained in the class of *beginning teachers*, with the hope that something may yet be done for them. They want to do better work. This book is to help them do it.

2. What beginning teachers should know.

a. **The pupil.** The seniors at the normal school have had a good course in educational psychology and child study and have learned a great deal about the *pupil*. Teachers who have not had such a course in child study and educational psychology find themselves greatly handicapped in their dealing with the child in their teaching. The child does not get on well, and the teacher does not know how to analyze the trouble. A good course in educational psychology would reveal to the teachers something of the original nature of the

children, their instincts and capacities, how the learning process goes on within them, and the chief facts about the individual differences in children. It would also reveal the chief characteristics of children at different ages of development and the methods that are most valid in those ages.

In addition to what a *beginning teacher* knows about children through study, through observation, or through any other means, it is incumbent upon him or her to learn as much more as possible just as soon as possible. Here are some of the things to try to learn about the pupil:

1) *What he already knows.* Knowledge gained in school starts with one's previous knowledge, not with his ignorance. Unless the teacher can find a point of contact in the previous knowledge of the pupil, no sure advance can be made in his education. You will find this out through talking with the pupil about all sorts of subjects—very little about his school subjects, but most about the things in which he is primarily interested. Find out his aspirations and ideals; what friends and what sort of friends he has.

2) *His disposition and attitudes.* In your efforts to lead and direct him, to have him conform to the disciplinary requirements of the school, you will need to have this information. This will be best gained in the same incidental ways as mentioned above. But your success in teaching him will be doubtful, unless you may learn these facts about him.

3) *His home environment.* You will find this out by visiting his home, becoming acquainted with his parents, endeavoring to win his friendship and to be worthy of it, talking with him about all sorts of things, more about other things than about school. Incidentally you

learn many things about this child which you yourself cannot express in words. Of the conscious sort of information, you will learn how much opportunity that child has had before for education, what his opportunities are for home study, what his disciplinary control is at home, and many other things that will be of help to you in your *beginning teaching* of this child. Of course, you are going to be courteous to the child at school and courteous to his home people—that is, you will try to be. You may fail, unless you really know the fundamental fact and meaning of courtesy. Remember, courtesy is a spiritual attitude, and you must be courteous to people *in their way*. Your influence will be in terms of the impressions which you make, rather than in the information which you give.

It is more difficult to learn and to know the pupil than any other factor of the whole school situation. But it must not be forgotten that it is more important for a *beginning teacher to know the pupil* than to be master of other educational factors. Socrates's constant injunction to his disciples was: "Know thyself". Let this be here changed to read: "Be sure to *know the pupils*". Know more than their names. Know their minds, their souls, their dispositions, their home environment, their health, their bodily defects, their strong points, their weak points, wherein they need help, and wherein they can help others. You will learn this, if you enter largely into the lives of the children, and veritably *live with the children*. This personal relation will secure you knowledge of the pupils that will enrich your own soul.

b. The subjects to be taught. After the pupil, which is the most important factor of the educational process to be known, the teacher must know the sub-

jects which he or she is going to teach. For, how can one teach what he does not know? If a person has come up through the elementary school course and has graduated at a good four-year high school, he is supposed to have the necessary academic knowledge for teaching in elementary schools. However, he needs to add to this at least two more years of professional study at normal school, or teachers' college, or school of education in a university. This knowledge of the subjects to be taught comes in three stages:

1) The teacher has in previous years, in elementary school and in high school, covered the subjects to be taught, and is supposed to be a master of their content. Nevertheless, certain kinds of public examinations are given to test the teacher's mastery of them. In some cases, the examination is given, not only to *beginning teachers*, but to those with experience as well. The state must be sure as to whether the person wishing to teach has the mastery of the necessary knowledge for teaching.

2) In summer teachers attend institutes and summer schools to deepen and broaden this knowledge of subjects to be taught. They study other text-books, under other teachers, and much new knowledge is gained with new interpretation. Or the persons may decide to do a tremendously better thing than this, which is, after their graduation from high school, to enter a normal school or teachers' college or university for two or more years of professional education for the all-important task of teaching. In these professional courses, one gets not only a larger view of the subjects to be taught, but also the methods of teaching them. One also gets courses in child study, psychology, sociology, and the broad courses in education in all its phases.

Very seldom does a person thus professionally educated fail, provided he has sympathy and tact.

3) In addition to the foregoing ways of getting hold of knowledge of the subjects to be taught, there is one other method which no teacher may leave off with impunity. That is the *daily preparation*. It makes no difference how well educated one may be, or how much knowledge of the subject to be taught he may have; lack of a constant daily preparation is certain to lead to failure as a teacher. Let the children "drink from a living fountain, not from a stagnant pool", as said the famous Dr. Arnold, of Rugby. Colgrove says: "The teacher who has ceased to grow has crossed the deadline, and begins to die at the top. . . . The teacher who has ceased to be an active student has lost the secret of his greatest power. . . . Teachers cannot rely on knowledge they have gained in high school or normal school or college. Memory must be refreshed. Forgotten connections and associations must be reviewed. Definitions and principles must be relearned. . . . It is not enough to know the subject in a general way. For to do efficient class work, one must know the specific book and the lesson to be taught." You come into a new understanding of a subject, when you study it to teach it, that you did not get when you studied it to recite it.

a) Study to be independent of the book. A teacher had done this. He knew his lessons so well that one day one of his pupils went home and said to his father: "My teacher knows more than the book does." Such knowledge on the part of the teacher inspires the pupils with confidence in, and respect for, the teacher.

b) Study daily again next year, and the year after next, and as long as you teach. Consult other text-

books; supplement your regular text with the material of other texts. Keep yourself fresh in the subject-matter that you teach. Select illustrations, pictures, and other supplementary material with which to enrich your text-book material. Those which you find this year, save to use again next year, and add more.

c) Study your lessons daily with reference to the particular pupils whom you are teaching this year. Try to adapt it to their needs, understanding, and appreciation. But you must do it the night, or two nights, before. You cannot do so spontaneously. Inspiration in teaching is the product of preparation, and even sometimes of perspiration.

d) Study your lessons with reference to planning them and choosing the methods to employ, the pupils to call on, and how to reach individual pupils. Study ahead to see how you can assign the next lessons. An assignment cannot be well made, unless the teacher may have studied it ahead of making it. The teacher must know in advance what to assign and how to assign it. It is needful to know how to correlate the assignments of lessons for the same day with each other so that the teaching of one shall reinforce the teaching of the others.

It is disgusting to observe a teacher who is so dependent upon the text-book that he must look into the text to ask the questions and then look over on a previous page to see whether the children may have answered the questions rightly. While the teacher is thus trying to hold the pupil to a memory of the answers to certain questions, the teacher himself cannot answer the same questions, when looking away from the text. This procedure is a veritable travesty upon teaching. A teacher should be ashamed to appear before the class

and not know enough about the detailed content of the lesson to be independent of the text. Such a teacher should feel obliged to apologize to the children who make up the class. When a person is called on to teach in Sunday School, if he does not know, through immediately previous study, the lesson to be taught, he will say: "You must excuse me. I haven't studied the lesson." The author is waiting to learn of the teachers in the American public schools who actually said to a class of children present to have their recitations in one of the public school subjects: "Children, you must excuse me today. I cannot teach the lesson, as I have not studied it." Such an act would be just as plausible in the public school as in the Sunday School. As the work of the public school is more technical than that of the Sunday School, it would be even more plausible to plead this excuse in the public schools for lack of daily preparation.

Teachers, your country is calling you to make academic preparation, professional preparation, and daily preparation. "The world is now taking its measure of you for a higher and larger task." Are you preparing for it?

c. **Methods.** The teacher should know good teaching methods; they are discussed in full in Chapters VIII, IX, and X.

3. **What beginning teachers should try to learn.** To be sure, they should continue to try to learn more about the pupil, and still more of the subject-matter to be taught. If a great deal about these two previously discussed items is known already, the next factor in the school-educational process will be fairly easy to learn. Remember that three factors in this process must be mastered, before the teacher can hope for a large suc-

cess: *the pupil; the subject-matter; methods*. If the teacher knows a great deal about pupils and a great deal about subject-matter, it is then easy to learn *methods*. This book is to help teachers in the matter of *methods*. Methods, as here used in its large sense, includes *teaching technique* and *school management*. The first part of this book will present the elements of the technique of teaching, and the latter part of it will present the elements of management of the school and of the class.

a. **The technique of teaching.** This term refers to the way in which the teacher arranges the teaching process, as she shall control it in her school or her room. While it is difficult to draw the line exactly between teaching and management, we shall endeavor here to place all elements of management as far as possible in the second part of this volume. The technique of teaching is going to involve in a large way *lesson-plan-making*. We present herewith a form for the *beginning teacher* to use in making lesson plans. Lesson-plan-making comes as a part of daily preparation. At first the *beginning teacher* should write out these lesson plans in great detail. It is well in practice-teaching that the first two thirds of the time should be used with lesson plans carefully written out in all the details herein suggested. The third third of the time the *beginning teacher* should write out only that part of the lesson plan which comes under B, II. This is the outline of organization. The latter kind of lesson plan is what the teacher should come to use. It is the form of written lesson plan that she should continue to use the rest of her teaching life. In the first eight or more weeks of teaching under supervision and criticism, her mind will have become practiced in recognizing quickly

the type, the aims, the results to be expected, and the methods economically usable. She will have learned how to introduce her lesson to be taught, and how to organize it, how to employ its methods, and how to summarize it, after it shall have been taught. It will always be well for a teacher to have a brief outline and organization of the lesson material which makes up the content of the lesson. This, in actual practice, may be written on a small sheet of paper in a loose-leaf notebook, not over $2\frac{1}{2}$ by 4 inches.

In lesson-plan-making, the teacher will need to learn to determine the following:

- 1) The different types of lessons;
- 2) How to have stated the several lesson aims;
- 3) How to study to make an assignment of a lesson;
- 4) How to ascertain what concrete results to expect from the work of the recitation;
- 5) What methods may be employed to accomplish the results expected;
- 6) How to introduce the lesson, when recitation time comes;
- 7) How to organize its content so that it may be mastered as a large unit;
- 8) How to detail one's teaching methods in relation to the points of subject-matter;
- 9) How to make a summary, generalization, or rehearsal of the lesson;
- 10) How to make an assignment of the next lesson.

All the foregoing will be discussed in the following chapters of Part I of this volume. The sample lesson plan form here follows: (As all the points in the heading are perfectly clear and familiar, except that of type, only types of lesson, taken from the heading, will be discussed. Then, we shall come immediately to those points in the main body of the form.)

Lesson Plan Form

SUBJECT _____ GRADE OR CLASS _____
TOPIC _____ DATE _____ 19 _____
LESSON TYPE _____ TEACHER _____

A. The Lesson Analyzed.**I. Aim.**

1. Teacher's—
 - a. Aim of course:
 - b. Aim of lesson:
2. Pupil's aim:

II. Assignment.

1. Motivation:
2. In text:
3. Out of text:
4. Difficulties to be cleared up:
5. Problem:

III. Results expected:

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.

IV. Methods by which to accomplish these results:

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.

(Reverse side lesson plan)

B. The Recitation.

I. Introduction:

1.

2.

3.

II. Subject-Matter.

III. Methods.

IV. Summary, generalization, or rehearsal.

b. **Management of school and classes.** The phases and factors of management, in so far as they may be predominantly differentiated from teaching technique, will be discussed and explained in Part II of this volume.

c. **Certain definitions.** Below will be given certain definitions, which the reader or student may well keep in mind, as he or she shall cover this book. They are here verbally stated; but the real meaning of the terms mentioned will not be wholly received from learning the words of these definitions. The terms mentioned include such a vast field of facts and principles that they will become understood only through reflection upon them from year to year. The teacher should continue to try to learn their real meaning. •

1) *Education.* The author here uses this term as denoting *any process of changing a human being for the better*. It might as well concern lower animals; but this volume's space is too limited to include lower animal learning. Wherever and whenever *changes for the better* are going on, there and then education is taking place. Education does not include changes for the worse. The latter may well be called *deëducation*. A person may learn to be worse; but such cannot be spoken of within the scope of that high and sacred term *education*. *Any changes for the better*, physical, intellectual, moral, vocational, avocational, civic, religious, etc., constitute education, regardless of the cause of such change. The state establishes a school system and engages in the task of education, because it recognizes that the young members of society need to be *changed for the better*. Education also includes prevention of changes for the worse.

2) *Teaching.* This term means in common speech *any conscious influence that one person exerts upon an-*

other that causes him to learn. If no one learns, no teaching has gone on. Teaching and learning are correlative terms. If one teaches, another learns. If there results no learning, the teacher has not taught, whatever methods he may have used. Teaching is the creation of situations which cause pupils to respond by learning.

3) *Learning.* This term includes *any* changes that may take place in one through influence of the outside world, whether the influencer be persons or things. It is the acquisition of experiences, whether they be good or bad. A person may be changed for the worse by learning bad habits from his companions. He may be changed for the better by profiting by the useful experience of others.

4) *Knowledge.* As this term is used very frequently in this volume, the author would have you think of it as a name for the summary of the *successful, profitable, and permanent experiences of the human race from the beginning of time up to the present, with the mistakes, the errors, the no-longer-serviceable elements left out.* The pupil of the modern school cannot afford to climb up the hill of knowledge by the slow way in which the race has finally arrived there. The foregoing definition may be illustrated in subjects, each of them representing a branch of human knowledge.

(a) Long ago, there came a time when men *needed to number* the objects which they used or the men who were to fight for them, and they began to number them. Later they began to combine these primary number experiences into somewhat higher relations, each new relation representing a higher type of experience. Others added to this, and so on for thousands of years. Gradually the branch of human knowledge, known as arithmetic, was built up. Arithmetic may be defined as the summary of the permanent and successful experiences

of man, as he has tried to master the world in its numerical relations. Similarly, language is the summary of the successful and permanent experiences of people in their attempt to communicate with one another. Writing is the summary of the successful and permanent experiences of mankind in its attempt to preserve a record of its work, and to communicate with those who are absent from the writer. Hygiene is a summary of the successful and permanent experiences of mankind in its fight against disease. So on.

5) *Professional education.* What does one get in professional education? He comes into possession of the successful and permanent teaching experiences of those teachers whose work has been considered successful in a high degree. He thus learns from their work how to avoid errors and mistakes in teaching, and what to do in order to achieve what may be called teaching success. Some school boards desire to employ *experienced* teachers. As a matter of fact, a person may remain in the schoolroom for many years without ever achieving a *successful experience*. If he should achieve it, it would be a mere happen-so. The best teaching experience, and the surest, is the result of learning in advance what has been the *successful experience* of other successful teachers. This is professional education and is in line with the way in which it is acquired in other vocations. It is in keeping with the definition of knowledge given in the preceding paragraph. No one is turned loose to practice medicine or law or even farming without having some one to show or to teach him the technique of the vocation. Many who would not stand for a moment for the lack of professional education in other vocations do not seem to see its value in teaching.

6) "*Form*" and "*content*" subjects. A "*form*" subject is one in which *habit* has large place; as hand-

writing, drawing, arithmetic fundamentals, reading (when the emphasis is on *how to read*), language (when the emphasis is on *how to speak or to write*), spelling. A "content" subject is one in which information and thought are given major emphasis; as history, geography, hygiene, literature, stories.

7) *The psychological aim of education* is to change a human being for the better,

a) by developing, strengthening, and perpetuating those tendencies of nature which are good in their expression, through *exercise and reward*;

b) by thwarting, restraining, hindering, or controlling those tendencies of nature which are bad in their expression, through *disuse and punishment*; and

c) by redirecting the expression of those tendencies of nature which may be good or bad according to their direction or expression so that their expression may be good and useful.

The tendencies of nature leading to construction, co-operation, kindness, etc., are examples of a). Tormenting, teasing, bullying, greed, stealing, etc., are examples of b). Curiosity, fighting, rivalry, migration, etc., are examples of c).

8) *Criticism*. This term means rendering a judgment. It may be favorable or unfavorable. It is not fault-finding, necessarily. It is, rather, fact-finding. Positive criticism involves the finding of facts that are favorable and rendering a judgment accordingly. Negative criticism means finding facts that are unfavorable and rendering a judgment in accordance therewith. Constructive criticism means the finding of the facts as they are, and the giving of suggestions for improvements. It also means giving these suggestions in a congenial way, so that the recipient of the criticism will welcome and appreciate them.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. What should beginning teachers know?
 - a. What should they know about the pupil? How find out these things?
 - b. What should they know about the subjects? What three ways of knowing them?
Discuss: "Every teacher should prepare thoroughly every lesson before trying to teach it."
 - c. Quote Arnold; Colgrove. What purposes of daily preparation?
2. What should a teacher try to learn? Why in each case?
3. What elements are suggested for a lesson plan? Which of these could be omitted? Why? What others could be added? Why?
4. What definitions are given by the author? Recite each. Criticize each one of them.

PART I
THE ELEMENTS
OF THE
TECHNIQUE OF TEACHING

CHAPTER II

LESSON TYPES—1

Meaning of "Type".

A lesson is frequently referred to as being of a certain type because it *proceeds* in a certain way. Type is a name given to the chief lesson procedure. That, however, is not the best basis for naming the type of a lesson. A better way is to designate it in terms of its *predominating fundamental purpose*. This is better because modern education is discussed primarily in terms of its *purpose*, rather than in terms of *procedure*, upon the basis of *aim* rather than upon that of *process*. A lesson type is a name given to a lesson in terms of the *predominating fundamental purpose of that lesson, as contributing to the achievement of the "aim of the course" for that year*.

It follows, then, that a teacher cannot determine a *type of lesson* merely by noting that the lesson comes within a certain subject, nor by merely determining the chief method to be employed. However, if he or she is to teach economically, the type of lesson, in terms of its *fundamental purpose*, must be recognized. Let the teacher seek, first, the *fundamental purpose*, as contributing to the achievement of the *aim of the course*. This is the first step in a careful, daily preparation for teaching. The teacher will receive help for doing this in the discussion of types of lessons in Chapters II and III and in the chapter on "Teaching Aims".

Types listed. The chief lesson types are as follows:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. The inductive lesson. | 6. The information lesson. |
| 2. The deductive lesson. | 7. The expression lesson. |
| 3. The expository lesson. | 8. The study lesson. |
| 4. The practice lesson. | 9. The review lesson. |
| 5. The appreciation lesson. | 10. The examination lesson. |

The *recitation lesson*, found in many lists of lesson types, is here omitted, (1) because it is a name given to a process, rather than to a *purpose*; (2) because there is no fundamental purpose in mere *recitation*, different from that of expression and practice; and (3) because, in common parlance, that part of every lesson period in which the teacher gives active direction to the mastery of the lesson material, by having the children re-tell, or discuss, what they have learned, is known as *the recitation*.

Also the *information lesson* and the *expression lesson* are here included, because the fundamental purpose of many lessons is that of information or expression.

1, 2. The inductive and the deductive lessons. The former is the type in which several specific cases are studied with a view to finding from them a common fact to be stated later as a general rule. *Induction*, in many texts, is discussed in such general terms that *beginning teachers* fail to see how to make inductively the connection between a given child and a given bit of subject-matter. In view of the common failure of teachers to recognize the inductive lesson in terms of purpose, in view of the very common inability to have children approach a new topic inductively, and in view of the common lack of appreciation of the ability to *think* through proper induction, both in school lessons and in later life, the author gives here more space to its explanation than to any other lesson type. However, good thinking involves both induction and deduction. As induction is here explained concretely and inductively,

deduction will in a large measure be explained at the same time, as follows:

a. **The lesson of the cows.** A father and small son were walking one day through the meadow. They passed a cow. The son recognized a cow characteristic and said, "A cow has horns." They walked on and the following dialogue took place:

The son: "Father, here is another cow with horns."

Father: "Yes, my son."

They came to another cow.

Son: "Here is another cow with horns."

Father: "You are a good boy. I like to see a boy that has his eyes on things about him."

Soon they came to another cow.

Son: "Father, here is another cow with horns."

Father: "You are an observant boy. I like a boy who can discover things for himself."

Soon they came to a fourth cow.

Son: "Father, here is another cow with horns. One, two, three, four cows, have horns. You know what I think, Father?"

Father: "No, Son. What is it?"

Son: "I think *all cows have horns.*"

Now the father understood true induction, and was too wise a man to correct immediately his son's reasoning. But instead, he guided the boy in the discovery of a better statement of the fact in that community in which cows were not de-horned early in life. So the father said, "My son, you are doing well; but I suggest that you keep on the lookout and see what you can find out and be very sure you are right before you tell others what you have found out about cows." So they walked on. They passed three other cows which had horns.

The boy in each case observed: "Here is another cow with horns; I told you all cows had horns."

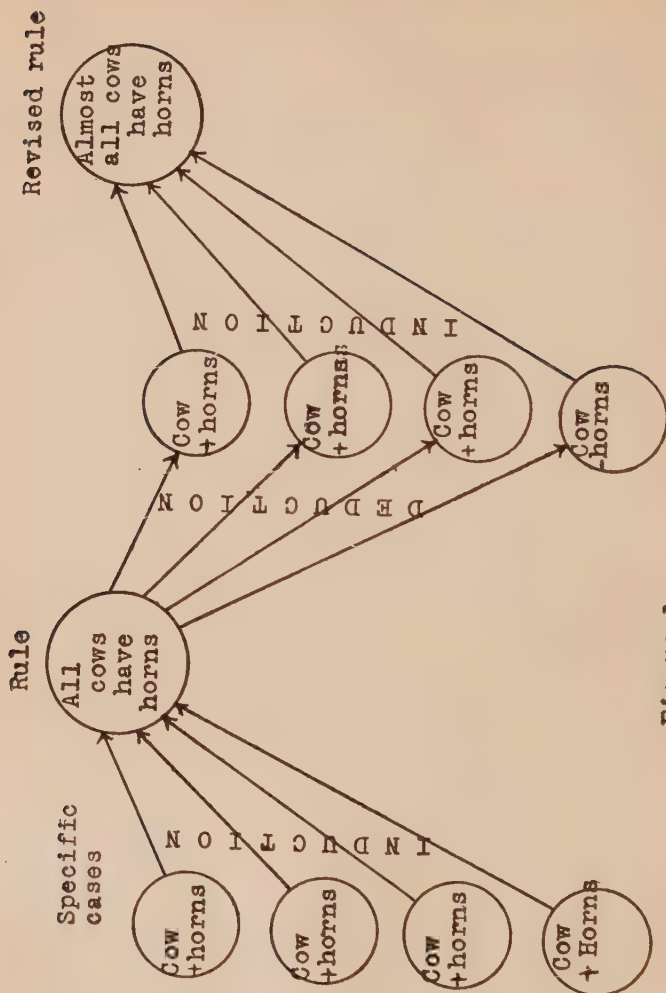


Figure 1.

The father showed interest and approbation in each case. Finally they came to a hornless cow. The father asked, carefully, "Now, Son, what will you say about cows having horns?" The father watched to see the reaction of his little son, who had found an exception to his rule, but the son quickly revised his rule and replied: "Well, *almost all cows have horns.*"

The reasoning of this boy has been both inductive and deductive. It may be shown schematically, as on page 24.

It will be observed that the boy's thinking here involved the following steps:

Induction:

- (1) The *observing of specific cases*;
- (2) A sufficient *comparison* of them to note a *common fact*;
- (3) The statement of that common fact as a rule;

Deduction:

- (4) Starting with a general rule;
- (5) Applying the rule to other specific cases, to test it;
- (6) Re-statement of the rule on basis of test.

b. The lesson of the island. One day a teacher in a rural school took her children out of the schoolroom down to the spring. Her aim was to teach her children objectively, but inductively, the meaning of island. (Much objective teaching is not made inductive, however, in common practice.) They walked down the small stream issuing from a spring. Soon she saw a small piece of soil, about the size of her hand, in the middle of the stream. She called her children to her and asked them what they noticed about that small piece of soil. One impetuous boy immediately called out, "It's got water all around it."

Teacher: "Would you say, 'It's *got* water all round it?' "

Others: "It *has* water all around it."

They passed on down a few steps, when the teacher saw another piece of soil in the water, but sticking above

it. It was about the size of her finger nail. She said, "Children, what do you note about this tiny piece of land?"

Again, quick as a flash, the same impetuous boy called out, "It's got water all round it."

The others corrected him and said, "Teacher, it *has* water all around it."

They went a little farther down the stream and the teacher saw an island about two feet across. Again she asked, "What do you observe about this piece of land?" Even the impetuous boy got it right this time and said, "It *has* water all around it."

Teacher: "Now, children, these particular pieces of land, which we have seen, and which have water all around them, have a name which I will give you. Each one is called an island." (Here she spelled it for them.)

"If I were to ask you what an island is, what would you say?"

Before others could speak, the impetuous boy replied, "It's a piece of land *got* water all round it!"

Teacher: "Would you say it that way?"

Others: "An island is a piece of land that *has* water all around it."

The teacher then had all the children say it in concert several times. She then said, "Children, see who can find me an island first."

Away they ran. Soon responses were heard.

Impetuous pupil: "Teacher, here is one."

Teacher: "One what?"

Pupil: "An island."

Teacher: "How do you know?"

Again he fell into his old habit: "It's *got* water all round it!"

Teacher: "How say it?"

Other pupils: "It *has* water all around it."

So several find islands and in each case give their reasons, "It has water all around it."

Teacher: "What, now, is an island?"

Pupils: "An island is a piece of land that has water all around it."

Shown schematically, the lesson appears as follows:

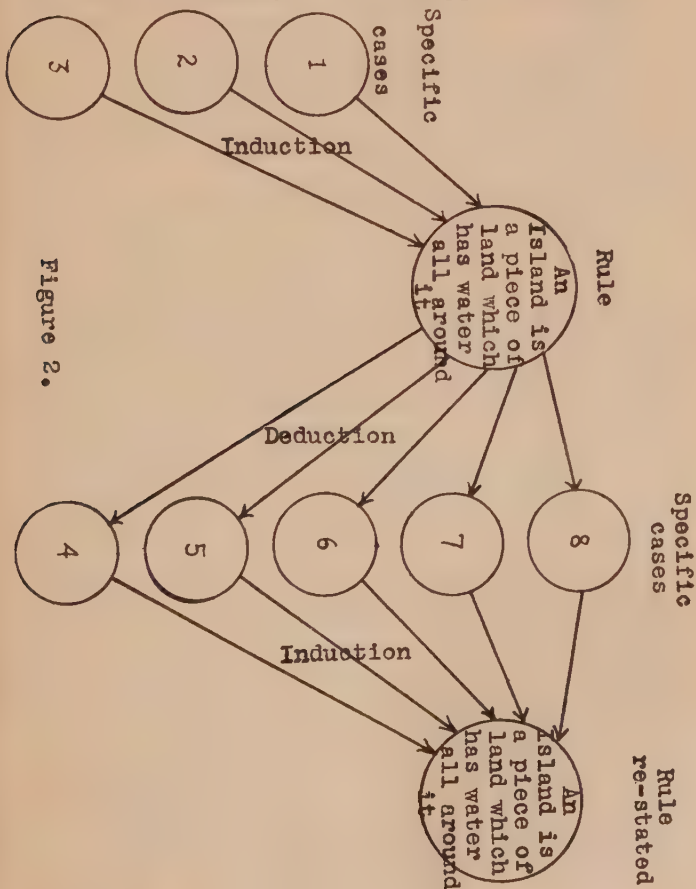


Figure 2.

(1), (2) and (3) in Figure 2 on page 27 represent the three islands to which the teacher called the children's attention, each *having water all around it*. (4), (5), (6), (7), and (8) are islands found by the children. The reasoning in this lesson shows the following steps:

Induction:

- (1) Observation of several specific cases;
- (2) Comparison and discovery of a common fact;
- (3) The statement of the common fact as a *rule* or generalization.

Deduction:

- (4) Starting with a rule;
- (5) Application of the rule to other specific cases for illustration;
- (6) Rehearsal of rule.

c. The lesson on the kind of letters with which to begin sentences. One day a teacher in charge of small primary grade children, wished to have them learn with what letters sentences should begin. Of course, she could have told them, and they would have forgotten. They could read easy sentences. They also knew the letters of the alphabet and the difference between small letters and capitals. The following took place:

Teacher: "Children, open your books to page 12."

They found the place. They had been taught to say "sentence", rather than "story".

Teacher: "Look at the first sentence and find out for me with what sort of letter it begins."

Children, quickly: "Big letter."

Teacher: "With what letter does the next sentence begin?"

Children: "It begins with a big letter, too."

Teacher: "The next sentence?"

Children: "Big letter."

Teacher: "The next sentence?" and so on till the page was covered, the children answering in each case, "Big letter."

Teacher: "Now turn to page 18. What letter begins the first sentence there?"

Children: "Big letter." So it went until about fifteen sentences had been observed.

Teacher: "Children, what do you think about the way sentences begin?"

Mary: "I think *all sentences begin with a big letter.*"

Teacher: "Very good. But, to be sure, let's look on page 36."

The children turned to that page. The teacher had them observe and report as before, for ten sentences.

Teacher: "What do you think about it now, children?"

Children: "We think *all sentences begin with big letters.*"

Then, to keep the children from forgetting, she had them copy a few sentences, noting the capitals at the beginning.

The reasoning of these small tots may be shown schematically as in figures 1 and 2. But it is not necessary. However, it does show the following steps:—

Induction:

- (1) Observation of specific cases (to see how sentences begin);
- (2) Comparing them to find the common fact ("big letter");
- (3) The statement of the common fact as a rule ("All sentences begin with big letters").

Deduction:

- (4) Starting with the rule "All sentences begin with big letters";

- (5) Application of it to other sentences to see if they begin with big letters, which is found to be the case;
- (6) Rehearsal of rule.

d. Another teacher had her children learn the parts of speech in the same way.

e. Another had them learn the rules of arithmetic in the same way; etc.

From the foregoing we have the following definitions:

1. **The inductive lesson is one in which the pupils observe several specific cases, compare them to discover a common fact, and then state the common fact as a rule.**

2. **The deductive lesson is one in which the children start with a rule and apply it to specific cases for purposes of testing the rule, illustrating or further developing it, or solving problems to which it applies.** It sometimes involves a search for the rule to use in solving the problems.

The chief trouble with the generality of people is not that they do not reason inductively, but very erroneously. They jump to a conclusion after considering just *one* case. The boy misses one example in arithmetic. He quits and says, "I can't work arithmetic"—one trial. A foreigner, traveling in America in June, saw one man come running to the train, coat in hand, the perspiration streaming down his face. The man just barely climbed aboard his train as it started. He then put on his coat, as ladies were in the car. The foreigner took his notebook and wrote: "All Americans put on their coats when they are very hot."

The *fundamental purpose* in some lessons is to have the children develop important rules for themselves through careful observation of enough specific cases to make the generalization really true. These lessons are predominantly *inductive lessons*. The fundamental

purpose in other lessons is to take a rule or generalization and apply it to specific cases to illustrate, or practice, or test, or further develop, the rule. Whether the rule may have been developed inductively or explained otherwise, the lesson now becomes *deductive*. In review lessons, the pupil must search for the rule to apply in each specific instance. Deduction becomes magnified and more valuable in the solution of problems in which the first step is to search for the rule or principle that will apply in the given case.

In former times rules were printed in books at the beginning of a topic, as in arithmetic or in grammar. The children were supposed to memorize the rule and then apply it. It is best to develop a rule so that its final statement becomes the summarizing of a thinking process, letting the statement come at the end of a process rather than at the beginning. This means that the process goes on far enough to develop into clarity the principle involved. After that the application of the principle involved in the rule must take place immediately and often, if the children are to master it. The former is induction; the latter, deduction.

When a principle is developed to the point at which a statement of it in the form of a rule may take place, it may be stated in the words of pupils. However, this does not mean different words by all the different pupils, nor does it mean just *any* words of the pupils. It must be by use of *correct* words of the pupils. The composite criticism of the class should give the best statement of the principle in a rule, involving the use of good judgment. When that point has been reached, though the teacher may have to help some to get there, and the rule has been correctly formulated, let the children memorize its wording, to sum up their thinking. Hold them to that wording thereafter. No efficiency involv-

ing speed can ensue, if a rule or principle must be reworded every time it is encountered.

3. **The expository lesson.** Exposition is, in general, explanation. The expository lesson is in place when there is an idea or a principle, the chief teaching of which involves *explanation*. Its justification is found in the fact that while many topics are worth being understood, yet time is lacking for careful inductive treatment. For example, "The Method of Electing a President" is to be explained. The "Germ Theory" needs explanation. The "Computing of One's Income Tax"; the "Financing of Our Government"; the "Rotation and Revolution of the Earth"; "How to Play Chess"; the "Difference between an Intransitive and a Transitive Verb"; the "Meaning of Organization";—such must be given expository treatment. Some of the topics above mentioned are of too great difficulty to be treated inductively by the average pupil. And it is certainly better for the children to learn something about those and similar topics through exposition than not to learn about them at all. The expository lesson has its usefulness in some lessons in hygiene, in physiology, in civil government, in some lessons in geography, in some topics of arithmetic, in much of physics and algebra, in some lessons of grammar and in many of rhetoric. In short, wherever the inductive treatment is too long to justify its use at the time, or wherever the difficulties of the use outweigh its value in the hands of the average teacher—there the use of the expository lesson is justified.

4. Conditions of an effective lesson

a. Inductive:

- 1) A problem to be solved by a study of a number of specific cases;
- 2) Such a study of each case as will isolate the fact to be generalized from the other accompanying facts;

- 3) The use of a sufficient number of cases to make the generalization valid;
- 4) The careful wording of the generalization, or rule, when it is reached.

b. Deductive:

- 1) The use of a rule or principle, at the start, which will fit the conditions;
- 2) The application of the rule or principle to a sufficient number of cases to make the illustration clear, or to prove the rule, or to develop the rule employed;
- 3) The restatement, or the rehearsal, of the principle employed, at its conclusion.

c. Expository:

- 1) A thorough understanding, by the teacher, of the thing to be explained;
- 2) An understanding, by the teacher, of the children's abilities to understand the explanation;
- 3) The employment of language and illustrations that are within the children's experiences and understanding.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. What is the meaning of "type" of lesson? Criticize this definition.
2. What types are listed? Would you enlarge or diminish this list? How? Why?
3. Distinguish induction and deduction. Criticize the examples given. What is the dividing line between induction and deduction?
4. What error appears in most people's thinking? Can it be corrected in childhood? How?
5. What values has induction to children trained to defer judgment until they have enough cases to make reasonably sure?
6. What values in carefully worded generalizations?
7. What justification for the expository lesson?
8. In what subjects will the inductive lesson be a prominent type of lesson? The deductive lesson? The expository lesson? In what sort of topics in each lesson for each subject?
9. What are the conditions of effective lessons of the types studied in this chapter?
10. State the definitions of:
the inductive lesson;
the deductive lesson;
the expository lesson.

CHAPTER III

LESSON TYPES—2

4. **The practice lesson.** This is called in most texts the “drill lesson”. The author prefers the term *practice* as more correctly naming the purpose of the lesson here discussed. If the children have learned certain ways of doing things, if they have fully understood certain technique of a “form” subject, *practice* is necessary to make them a permanent part of their intellectual capital. The music student must “practice” much, if she would become a skilled musician. The learner of arithmetic must have provided for him many exercises in arithmetic for pure “practice.” The same is true in spelling, handwriting, language, drawing, and the other “form” subjects. *A frequent recurrence to fundamental principles is necessary for preserving the blessings of liberty*, whether the liberty spoken of may be civil, political, musical, mathematical, manual, linguistic, or any other sort. The teacher who fails to provide for practice of the principles which have been taught well enough for the children to understand them, will be undeceived, if disappointed, when “test” day comes. It is not enough to have children *understand* a topic taught. The teacher must go beyond the threshold of understanding into the realm of practice, and provide for over-learning through practice. It is a law of life that responses, both mental and physical, frequently made, tend to persist and to be made more easily. The Jesuits used to say, “Repetition is the mother of memory.” Many exercises per-

formed involving a common principle, or the same exercises frequently performed, tend to make the performance easy, quick, efficient. Thus habits are built up, and the mind is left free to attack other problems.

The author's observation of many teachers leads him to believe that school lessons are frequently gone through in a perfunctory way, without attempt at various motivation of practice. Children's school work takes on new life if definite provision is made for *motive*. This is a necessity, if effective work is to be done. But motive alone—even work alone—will not accomplish effective results. The subsequent work must involve a frequent use of principles, ideas, facts, taught in the early part of the work. The author appeals to teachers to keep in mind, and to provide for, an *occasional use* of what their children have been taught. In the case of spelling, handwriting, language, the four fundamentals of arithmetic, there must be provided *frequent, motivated practice*. *The purpose of the practice lesson is to reduce forms of thought and action to an automatic basis*, so that action may take place quickly, accurately, as a result of habit. The practice lesson purposes to transform into habits that which has been learned.

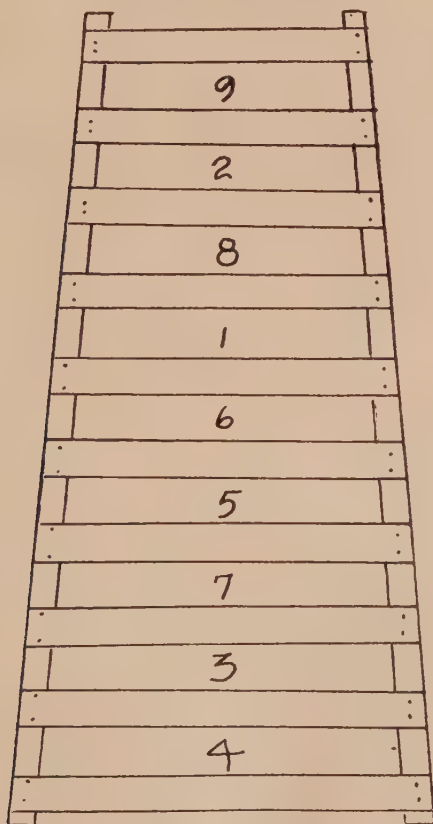
Conditions of effective practice.

1) *Motive*. This is the fundamental condition of success in practice work. Children must know why they practice, and must *feel a need* for it. This would be a combined operation of the two fundamental laws of learning called by Thorndike the Law of Effect and the Law of Exercise, the best statement of which laws is found in the sixth chapter of his excellent book, "Animal Intelligence." It is the harmonization of interest and effort.

Practice lessons in arithmetic fundamentals may be

motivated through speed contests. The teacher may put on the board a ladder with so many rounds in it, with figures to indicate the number of examples in the exercise, the number tried, and the number correct, thus:

THE "LADDER"



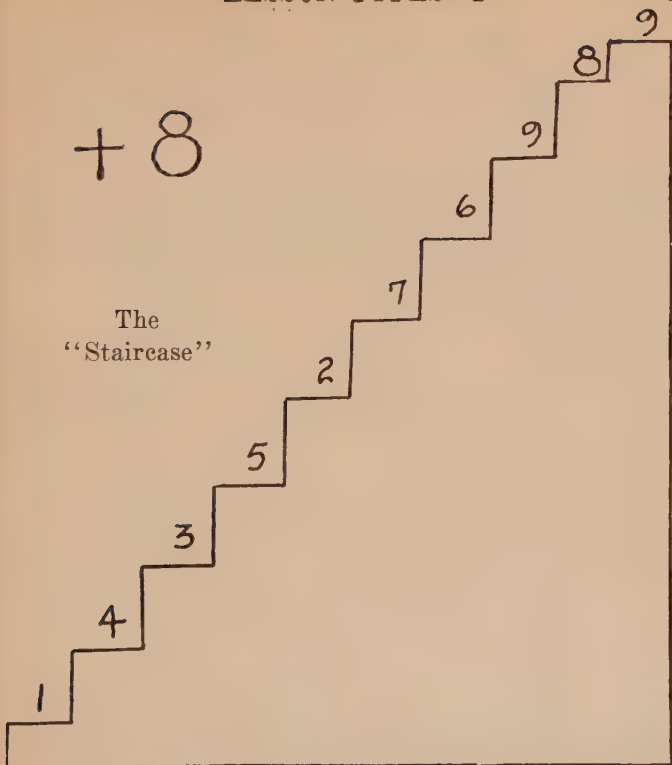
The teacher uses, say, examples from the Courtis Tests. The children are to try to see how far they can

climb towards the top of the ladder in the number of minutes allowed, by how many examples they can "try," by how many they can "get right." If the teacher has some imagination and can draw, she may draw an apple tree with red apples extending above the ladder, so that every child who climbs to the top of the tree may reach up and get an apple. She draws the picture of the successful pupil standing on top of the ladder, just grasping his apple. The mastery of the fundamentals are so important for further successful work in arithmetic that it is really worth while to have a few minutes' practice on them every day, say, in addition one day, subtraction another day, etc., with the aim of achieving the Curtis scores for your grade or grades by next May or June. In a rural school all grades above the second may have this practice together. Let the children know the standard scores for their grades. Encourage them to achieve them or even to excel them.

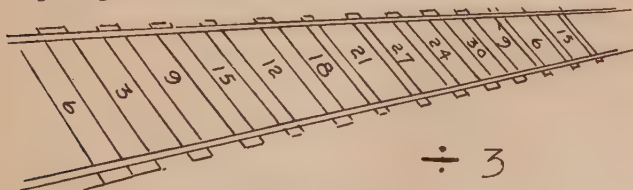
In the second and third grades the teacher may motivate her practice work in arithmetic by use of the "staircase," the "railroad," the "bridge," the "circle." One of these devices may be used one day, and another the next day, etc. They are used to best advantage in the mastery of the facts of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, as presented in the Tables. They may be used for all these four processes and for any combinations. They appear as follows: Pupil's problem (on page 39): "See who can climb up the staircase without falling. If you miss one number, you fall." The teacher, with a few strokes of the white crayon, could draw, as lying on the "ground," all those who fall down. With colored chalk she could, with a few strokes, draw besides the 9 on the upstairs *floor*, those who arrived safely up there.

$$+ 8$$

The
“Staircase”



Pupil's problem: “See who can walk the track with-

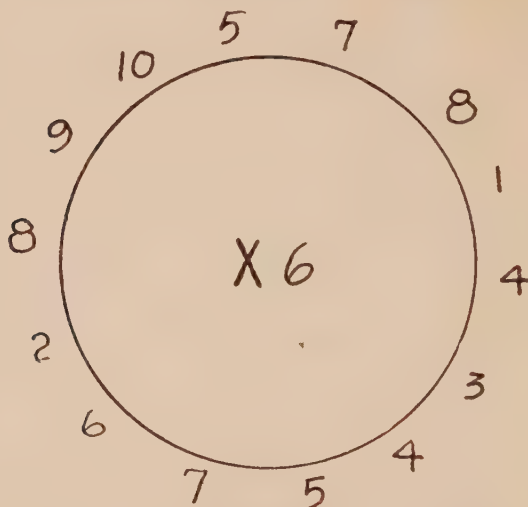


$$\div 3$$

The “Railroad”

out falling off.” The teacher uses this as she did the staircase.

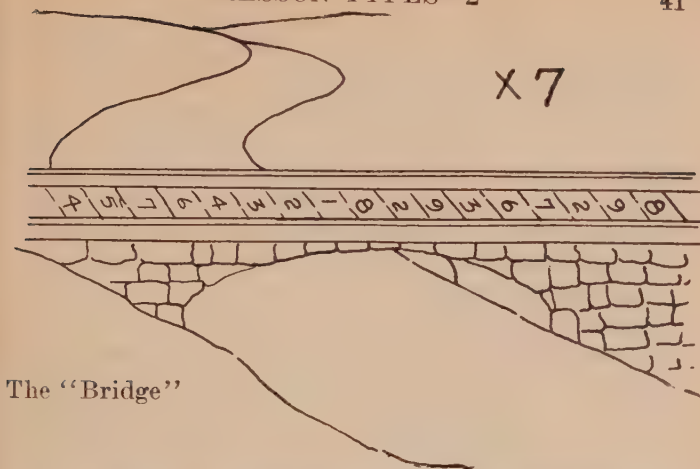
Pupil's problem: "See who can run around the circle without being caught." Use in the same way as the "staircase." Each child has a number. If he is



The "Circle"

caught, he has to go into the middle. Or see how many seconds it takes to get around for each.

Pupil's problem (on page 41): "Here is a number on each plank of the bridge. Everyone who walks across this bridge and does not fall into the stream I will dress up in fine clothes (colored chalk) and let him stand over on this side." All these involve the play contest motives which are real with small children. Upper grade children in arithmetic should have their practice in use of processes previously covered motivated by giving in the assignment of home work an occasional problem of practical nature, and involving the *use* of a process already passed.



The "Bridge"

In spelling it is possible to have four practices in the same recitation period of fifteen minutes. Suppose the teacher has assigned six words to be studied. Recitation time comes.

a) The teacher has the children, with books open, listen to her pronounce the words by syllables and by wholes (for ear-training). After the pronunciation of each word the children also pronounce the word by syllables and as a whole (for voice-training).

b) Then, with books closed, she gives out the words to be spelled orally and pronounced both by syllables, but not summing up after each syllable, and as wholes.

c) The pupils take their spelling pads and write the words as wholes as given out by the teacher.

d) They place the spelling-pads at the edge of their desks for easy and quick inspection by the teacher. As they now write sentences or a story containing the words, the teacher rapidly passes down the aisle and checks up the correctness of the written spelling.

She motivates it

(1) by assigning words that will soon be needed in a letter or other exercise;

(2) by the "variety" of the above procedure;

(3) by having a nice pasteboard, 15 x 20, on which all the children's names are written, and by affixing a gold star to the name of each one who spelled correctly all the words; and

(4) by having the words reviewed in preparation for a "spelling match."

Correct language practice may be motivated by making a list of the twelve most common speech errors and bringing them to the attention of the children. Put up an honor roll entitled "Star Speakers". Let your children be divided into about four groups, say, each row of pupils being a separate group. Let these rows or groups compete to see which one may win the most stars on the honor roll by using the correct forms instead of the prevailing errors. Fewer than twelve errors at a time may be used, if the teacher thinks it better. Others may be added, as the correct forms are mastered. A row or group wins a star, if in a given day complete sentences are used in recitation and none of the listed errors are heard in that row.

Handwriting practice may be motivated in preparation for writing a real letter; and by frequent reference to a handwriting scale to note improvement. In every sort of practice endeavor to have the children *want* to become proficient in the process.

2) *Recognition of just those elements of learning that must be practiced.* The teacher must recognize what subjects require large practice and what elements of those subjects need special stress. In handwriting the muscular movement is hard to master and requires much practice. In spelling, every word that is worth spelling at all is worth sufficient practice to enable the

children to remember it; hence, the author advocates several spellings of a few words (not many words in the average spelling lesson) in the same recitation. But the teacher should recognize that the 1,000 words on the Ayres Spelling Scale are the most frequently used words in the language and that every child should learn how to spell them. She should recognize, also, that the "100 demons" in Jones's "Concrete Investigation of Spelling" are the most difficult words in the language for children to spell; and she should make sure that the children have sufficient practice on these to retain the correct spelling forever.

She should recognize that in arithmetic "eternal vigilance is the price of liberty." A regular five-minute practice on the fundamentals should be had daily in the elementary schools till the eighth grade scores may be made by the use of the Courtis Tests. Also, topics like Division of Decimals, Bank Discount, Carpeting, Papering, and all others worth learning, must have some practice by the pupils after they have been passed. This can be provided by assigning an example occasionally in one of these topics in connection with subsequent topics. This should be done sufficiently often to make sure that the children remember how to do them. Anything worth learning is worth remembering. It is the teacher's duty to create those conditions which shall make for easy retention of what has been learned by the pupil of average and of superior ability.

In language she must recognize which elements should go into immediate use and practice. The use of complete sentences is one. She should make a list of the common speech errors and provide for practice in the use of the right forms. Consecutive discourse in recitations is another element needing frequent practice.

3) *Carrying the results of practice over to other sub-*

jects. This is particularly true of language and writing. If it is worth while to teach children in the language lesson correct language use, the teacher should have that which has been taught *used* in other exercises. Insist upon the use of correct sentences and consecutive discourse. The latter involves several correct sentences about one topic. If you teach children to avoid the "and" habit and other incorrect forms in language, do not permit their use in history and other subjects. If you teach them how to begin and end sentences, have them do so in their written exercises. There is no value in their learning these things, unless they are to use them *immediately* in school life.

Many teachers, after having the children practice writing in its period by the most careful count and instruction, will immediately let the children write their spelling or other exercises with no reference to correct posture, pen-holding, or movement. Thus nearly all the good teaching effect filters away. Before beginning a written exercise, the teacher should put the children through a few counts to secure correct posture and attitude on the part of the children, before they begin to write. If in *real* school life the children are not to write as taught in the writing lesson,—sitting in correct position, correctly holding the pen and using the right movement,—there is no excuse for teaching these things.

Let us help the children *carry over*, consciously, what is taught them in the language and writing to the real situation in which they live,—namely, their school life. The same may be said of hygiene and sanitation, and other subjects.

4) *Repetition with attention*. Get the children's attention on the thing practiced. A boy who insisted upon saying, "*I written a letter*" was kept after school and required to write forty times, "*I have written a*

letter." Before he was through, the teacher left the room. When he finished, he laid his paper on her desk and left a note which read, "*I written my sentences forty times and put them on your desk.*" Practice without attention does not get anywhere.

5) *Variation of the form of the practice.* This prevents monotony and weariness. Examples of this condition are seen in arithmetic and spelling previously given. Practice in error confirms the error. Vary from it toward the correct form.

6) *Brevity.* Practice lessons in school should usually be brief, when done by use of the same procedure. In arithmetic fundamentals five or ten minutes may well be the time limit. When you can, urge them, as in a race, to see who can do the most, or how much each can do, in the time. The latter is an appeal to rivalry as a motive for hard work. An hour's practice time is better, when distributed into several periods, than when concentrated in one period.

7) *Correct idea of the work to be done.* It is incumbent upon the teacher to see that every child knows exactly what he is to do. "Practice makes perfect" only when it is the right sort of practice performed in the best way, following proper direction. The pupil may be instructed to leave off calling figures added in addition. He may be *shown* how to begin and how to make a letter before he practices on it. In every practice exercise, let us see that the pupil knows what he is to do and how he is to do it, before he is set to doing it. If he practices by the wrong method, it becomes all the harder to learn the right one. A girl who learns to finger wrongly the keys of the piano will have difficulty in substituting for that bad practice correct fingering. The man who learns how to use a typewriter by using only the forefinger of each hand will have great diffi-

culty in acquiring efficient typewriting ability by the "touch system."

8) *Accuracy in early practice.* "Be sure you are right, then go ahead." Accuracy first, speed afterward. No worthwhile efficiency is gained by learning to perform rapidly any process by an incorrect, inaccurate way. See that the children *know* their combinations in arithmetic before speed is aimed at. See that they *know how* to make their letters in writing before speed is put on. Let them have the *accurate* language form, the *accurate* piano fingering, the *accurate* typewriting fingering, before quantity is set up as a goal. First impressions are lasting, whether these impressions are correct or incorrect.

9) *Attention to elements of special difficulty.* Whenever a word is found to be difficult in spelling, put it on the board, write its letters involving the difficulty in colored crayon and then have the children practice spelling it. In any other response needing to be reduced to the basis of habit, but involving a difficulty, concentrate upon the difficult part.

10) *Increased length of intervals between practices.* After something has been learned, whether it be language, spelling, arithmetic, handwriting, typewriting, piano-fingering, telegraphing, tennis-playing, a poem memorized, it should be rehearsed, to be sure, if automatism is to result. But it may be rehearsed at increasing lengths of intervals between rehearsals, until practical permanency is produced. A poem completely memorized, if practiced twice this week, once each week for several weeks, then once each month for awhile, can hardly be forgotten.

11) *Guarding against carelessness and lapses.* Keep the children up to the standard in practice, not only in the practice periods, but also in other exercises. This

is the teacher's task. The laws of habit, formulated by Professor James, may be briefly stated as follows:

a) Get the children to *want* to attain to a certain degree of efficiency;

b) Have them begin *immediately*;

c) *Suffer no exceptions* to the right way of performing the process.

12) *Memorizing by the "whole" method.* Effective memorizing results from many rehearsals. Students lose much in the way of time and permanent effects through poor methods of memorizing. There are three methods of memorizing, in terms of amount included in one effect: The "part" method; the "intermediate" method; the "whole" method. Completely memorizing a word, or a line, or a sentence at a time, before undertaking the next word or line or sentence, is the use of the "part" method. Children, unaided, ordinarily use this method. The better method is the "intermediate" method in which the learner takes a whole paragraph or stanza, and goes over it as a whole, till it is learned. The best method is the "whole" method, in which the learner attacks the selection as a whole, not stopping at the end of each stanza or paragraph, but going over the whole selection, till it is completely learned. The second method is no more difficult than the first one and is more effective. The third method is somewhat more tedious, but pays for the extra tedium by the effectiveness of retention. All mental associations are thus correctly formed, and the piece is memorized as a "whole."

If a selection is to be memorized, it must be rehearsed or practiced many times. Let the teacher instruct the pupil to memorize it, if short, by the *whole* method; if long, certainly, by the *intermediate* method. The pupil should start out in this way from the first attempt at memory.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. Criticize the "conditions for effective practice." (Re-read last paragraph of Chapter I.) Which of these conditions are usable by you? Name them.
2. List six other conditions enhancing the efficiency of the practice lesson.
3. In what subjects has "practice" a large place?
4. How would you have children practice spelling so as to prevent it from becoming tiresome and yet increase the probability that the children will remember permanently the words learned? How practice similarly in arithmetic? In writing? In other subjects?
5. How would you apply the "laws of habit" to writing, piano-playing, number combinations, typewriting, language use, stenography, tennis?

6. In what other subjects can efficient practice be provided so as to prevent tiresomeness? How in each case?
7. Can efficiency in "form" subjects be expected without provision for practice? Why?
8. Explain three methods of memorizing. What are the advantages and disadvantages of each?

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CHAPTER IV

LESSON TYPES—3

5. The appreciation lesson.

a. **Its meaning and purpose.** Appreciation means not only the understanding of something, but the liking for it. It is an understanding which highly satisfies. It is an harmonious coöperation of the intellect and the emotions. It is intelligent enjoyment. In every lesson the element of *enjoyment* enhances its effectiveness. People may *enjoy* arithmetic, because of their interest in solving puzzles and problems. They may *enjoy* history because of the thrill that the report of human group action may give them. They may enjoy making something in manual arts, because it satisfies instinctive construction. When people *enjoy* a task, they are getting the play spirit into their work, and that relieves work of its drudgery.

It is human nature for them to enjoy or *appreciate something*. That man or woman is to be pitied who has little power of appreciation.

“A primrose by a river’s brim
A yellow primrose was to him,
And it was nothing more.”

It is another thing as to what they shall enjoy. Human nature is such that it comes to enjoy that to which it becomes accustomed. Even vice may be appreciated, if nature be let go astray.

“Vice is a monster of so frightful mien,
As to be hated needs but to be seen
Yet seen too oft, familiar to her face,
We first endure, then pity, then embrace.”

Here is a case in which one may actually come to the appreciation of vice. But the task of education, always being that of *changing people for the better*, is to cultivate and develop children's power for enjoyment and appreciation of those things which the human race has found worth while to appreciate—things of beauty, symmetry, truth, perfection, religion.

The *fundamental purpose* of the appreciation lesson is that of intelligent enjoyment of what the best wisdom of the race teaches us is worth while to enjoy. The subjects in which the greatest effort is put forth to develop the disposition to appreciate what ought to be appreciated are literature, music, painting, architecture, oratory, sculpture.

b. Subjects.

1) *Literature*. It is a fine thing that the high school English courses are beginning to be so enriched by the best literature of the race. The reading books of the elementary school also are now nearly all filled with true classics carefully selected. This being true, the literature lesson of the high school, and the reading lesson of the elementary school should have for their fundamental purpose *enjoyment* of that which they find in these lessons. If the pupils fail to enjoy that type of literature, these lessons have failed fundamentally.

Many young people read the dime novels, the low class detective stories, the salacious and vicious magazines, and the like, and *appreciate* them. They appreciate the motion pictures of the questionable kind. They appreciate the episodes in which the so-called “Wild

West" is portrayed in an exaggerated way. But no one contends that these are the proper things to appreciate. People tend to become like what they *appreciate*, as is taught in the Great Stone Face. It is urgent that teachers should lead the children to appreciate that type of literature which enriches one's soul, raises his aspirations, enlarges his ideals and makes of him a better person. The problems in the reading or literature lessons are how to teach this lesson or these lessons so that the children will appreciate their content, and what methods to employ to induce in high degree this appreciation. "Reading," in elementary schools, will not produce appreciation, if it consists merely in pronouncing words. "Literature," in high school, will not do it, if it is merely rhetorical analysis and grammatical dissection. Too many of our young people, after graduation from high school, lay aside their books of literature to be read no more. This is not well. Their literary and esthetic education is sadly deficient, if having read the masterpieces of literature, they have not learned to *enjoy* their content.

2) *Music*. Let us try to teach the children to *enjoy* the song of others, and the singing by themselves of that which is worth while. Most people *appreciate* music of some sort, and they usually appreciate that to which they are most accustomed. If "ragtime" and "jazz" are common to them, good music bores them. "Good" music does not necessarily mean music so deeply classical as not to be enjoyed without a highly musical education. In fact, "good music" is graded in difficulty from that which is very difficult down to that which is very easy. While we want children to learn to "sing by note," let that be only a means to the end, which is to enjoy music that enhances one's life through its enjoyment. In the selection of Victrola rec-

ords those should be selected that are of high quality. It is well when people are disposed to attend those concerts at which the better type of music is rendered.

3) *Nature*. Nature is beautiful all about us, if our eyes were only opened to its beauties. As Elisha's servant's eyes were opened to a "mountain full of horses and chariots of fire round about Elisha," so may the eyes of our pupils be opened through our instruction to the beauties of beautiful flowers that our pupils will have them in abundance about their homes; to the beauties of proper and properly grouped trees; to the mysteries of the building of old Mother Earth herself. Many adults go through life, "having eyes that see not" God's beauties all about them. May the ears of the children, too, be unstopped that through our teaching they may begin to hear the music of the songbirds and of the babbling brook. If the eyes of the children be opened and their ears unstopped for the respective beauties and harmonies of God and nature, our teaching must cause it to come thus to pass. Whether this teaching of nature be in the form of elementary observation of the common things about the schoolhouse door, in the form of horticulture, floriculture, agriculture, physics, chemistry, or in any other form, let us with the children search for these harmonies and symmetries and rhythms and charms that God has put there for our *enjoyment*. Let the children be encouraged to observe, report, record, and investigate the things of nature about them.

4) *Architecture, Painting, Sculpture, Oratory*. Let the children be encouraged to study and visit buildings of the better sort that they may become inclined to include some of those elements of beauty, symmetry and grace in the building of their own homes. Study the master paintings in pictures with the children that the

children may become acquainted with them, make them their friends, and learn how to select from among them those which will properly adorn their homes, their school, or their church. While sculpture and oratory do not hold their place in public esteem as in former time, the children should be encouraged to visit and study real sculpture and to use every opportunity to hear a *real* orator.

c) **Conditions of an effective appreciation lesson:**

- 1) Knowledge by the teacher of the real points in the thing studied worthy of appreciation;
- 2) Appreciation of those features or qualities by the teacher;
- 3) Encouragement of the children to seek for those qualities, or traits, or features, to be appreciated; and
- 4) Encouragement of the children to discuss the merits and qualities found by them in the objects of appreciation, without the teacher's dictating or forcing a particular decision and without requiring too much rationalization about them.

6. The information lesson.

a. **Meaning and purpose.** Most lessons are informational, yet many of them have, for their ultimate and fundamental purpose, the children's getting of information. In such cases the lessons would not be had but for the information involved. These lessons are sometimes called "content" lessons. They do not imply a necessary attempt to give the children a multitude of unrelated facts. In truth, a proper *information lesson* implies thinking or reflection in its best sense. It tries to guide the children in the relation of facts to worthy life purposes, in the selection and organization of important facts, in the neglect and omission of unimportant facts, and in the judging of their worth with reference to a pre-determined standard of values. While the thinking of the recitation period may be

inductive or *deductive* or both; while the facts studied may be stimulative of *appreciation*; while exposition may be necessary in some degree, and some *practice* of previously learned facts may be incidental, this lesson is primarily not for these purposes, but fundamentally for information. It might, indeed, be called the *reflection* lesson, but it exists for information and not reflection.

b. **Subjects.** The *information lesson*, while more prominent in some subjects than in others, is, however, not confined to the so-called “content” subjects. Such topics in arithmetic as carpeting, papering, commission and brokerage, interest, are *informational*. Hygiene and sanitation are taught primarily for the information they carry for healthful living. History is being revised for schools that its lessons may contain true and valuable historical *information*. Geography is taught that the children may acquire the proper information of the earth as the home of man, how the earth influences the life of man and how man changes and modifies the form and life of the earth; and how inter-dependent the nations and peoples of the earth are upon each other; so on.

c. The successful *information lesson* will involve the following *conditions*:

- 1) A knowledge, on the part of the teacher, of just the few big bits of information the children ought to get from the lesson;
- 2) The formulation of a problem which will serve as the guide and center of the children's thinking;
- 3) The assignment of definite material to be studied both in texts and in supplementary books;
- 4) The employment of consecutive discourse in the recitation and discussion;
- 5) The judging of the importance and worth of the facts considered with reference to their bearing upon the problem of the lesson;

- 6) The selection and organization into a coherent unit about the problem of those few large facts that count here;
- 7) The consideration of their bearing upon life in general;
- 8) The full freedom of the pupils to think without feeling restrained by the teachers;
- 9) The opportunity for the critical examination, by the students, of each other's opinions; and
- 10) The provision for review and summary.

No further discussion will be had here as to the *information lesson*; but attention is called to sample lessons of this kind under "Lesson Plans," to be found further on in this volume.

7. The expression lesson.

a. **What it is.** "Every impression must eventuate in expression." This and similar sayings are but attempts to explain a very profound principle of learning and teaching. It is necessary for the teacher to provide for *expression* in connection with all lessons; but there are some lessons in which the major purpose is expression of some sort. The expression lesson is one in which the purpose is that of expression by the children of ideas, principles, facts, with which they have been impressed.

b. Subjects.

1) *Construction and drawing.* Here is a case in which the teacher "instructs" the children in how to make and draw a certain thing. It is known that if the children *express* this idea in the immediate making or drawing of that thing, education is going on in the lives of those children. The careful making or drawing of many things in accordance with concrete instructions gradually builds up manual skill.

2) *Oral reading.* We want the child to "read" for us what he has been reading to himself as an *expression* of the thoughts which he has acquired from the printed page.

3) *Dramatization*. We frequently supplement mere oral reading by having the children play it. This motor expression enhances vocal expression, deepens thought impression, and makes for truer interpretation. However, in both oral reading and dramatization, better expression is secured, if the major purpose of the lesson be made that of *appreciation*.

4) *Story-telling*. Children learn to do by doing, provided they be directed to do in efficient ways. Under proper guidance children will learn how to talk publicly, use correct, complete sentences and acquire facility in consecutive discourse by provision on your program for the "Story Hour"—or half-hour for that matter. Story-telling or oral composition finds justification for expression, as well as for appreciation. Correct oral language must precede correct written language.

5) *Written composition*. A young man took a teacher's examination in grammar. He answered correctly every question. Yet there was not a correct complete sentence in his paper. He excused himself by saying that he had never had a teacher who taught him to write. His grammar *impressions* failed him, because composition *expressions* had never been placed in his school program.

6) *Beginning writing*. When children are small and are being first taught to write, let the children see the teacher make on the board in a large way each letter, noting where she starts and which way she goes. Immediately let them do the same. Let their *expression* follow quickly after their *impression* of the way the teacher did it.

7) *Arithmetic*. Some lessons in this subject may well be taught primarily to secure the right *expression* in arithmetical terms of the number ideas that we believe

we are teaching. Have the children *say* the number relations and *write* them in ways that speak the truth without qualification. Unless arithmetic be *expressed* correctly, it becomes a means of falsehood and untrue thinking. The *expression* must be exact and true.

8) *Singing*. We must learn to sing by singing. It is not only for practice, but as well for *expression* of the song. We cannot learn a song or hymn except by singing it. The pupils should have large opportunity for doing the actual singing of songs worth singing.

9) *Conclusions, generalizations or summaries*. It is of importance, when conclusions or generalizations or rules have been reached, that they be stated in language which may be held to rather tenaciously thereafter. The same thing may be said of summaries. It is a mistake to omit this final synthesis in pupils' lessons. Of course, this would not often be a lesson in itself, but it should be a part of most lessons.

c. Conditions of effective expression lessons. Many teachers attempt to secure expression, before the children have got into their minds something to *express*. Be sure there is in the child's mind something to *express*; some idea of a thing to be constructed; something that he can tell; some content that he can express in oral or written composition; the right way to *write*; a knowledge of how to *work* the example; instruction in how to *sing* the song; a real general idea, principle, conclusion, or rule, to be *stated* as a generalization or summary.

It is a mistake to force expression in the absence of a good motive. The child may *construct* something to give to mother, or draw something to be used for a border. He may be encouraged to read a story to *tell* to his classmates—a real audience. He may read the story in order to help play it. He may play it in prep-

aration for a school entertainment. He may in his composition report to his teacher or class certain things that they do not yet know. As often as you can, make the motive as real and as true to life as possible. Briefly stated, the *conditions of an effective expression lesson* are as follows:

- 1) The children's thorough knowledge and understanding of what is to be expressed;
- 2) The conditions in which the children work favorable to that form of expression employed at the time;
- 3) Careful oversight, direction and guidance in the early stages of such expressional work; and
- 4) A good motive for expression, as a real audience to speak before, a real letter or article to write, a real use of the object constructed.

8. The study lesson.

a. **What it is.** That lesson whose fundamental purpose is to teach children how to study a given subject effectively is a study lesson. The studying of a lesson or the supervision of the studying of a lesson, cannot be well called a study lesson. In either case the major purpose might be that of induction or practice or information, and the like. The term *study lesson* is here confined to the one mentioned in the first sentence of this paragraph.

It is certainly true that children need to learn *how to study*. Most of them will not learn to study efficiently unless they are so taught. An occasional lesson should, therefore, be had on how to study a lesson in the particular subject. The author has found that college freshmen need to be taught how to study. After being so taught how to study the subject at hand, they have asked many times, "Why were we not taught how to study in the first year in high school, or in the grades?" Children and young people do not realize

that they do not know how to study, until they are taught how to do so.

b. **Factors of study.** The book that has meant most to the author as a student, as a teacher, as a supervisor of training schools for teachers, and as a teacher of Education, has been Frank M. McMurry's book, entitled "How to Study and Teaching. How to Study." It is a good book not only on *how to study*, but also on *how to teach*, and *how to supervise*. In this book he outlines the factors of good study, as follows:

- 1) Finding a specific purpose for study;
- 2) Supplementing the thought, until it becomes quickening and nourishing to the learner;
- 3) Organizing of ideas;
- 4) Judging of the soundness and worth of statements;
- 5) Memorizing through thinking, rather than thinking after memorizing;
- 6) Using of the ideas in the accomplishment of purposes;
- 7) Exercising a tentative, rather than a fixed, attitude toward new ideas; and
- 8) Recognizing and exercising one's own individuality, rather than letting it become submerged.

No exposition of these factors is here attempted; but if teachers might read McMurry's "How to Study" and make provision for the utilization of the foregoing factors in the children's study, a worthy teaching task would be performed. These are the factors of an efficient study lesson.

9. The review lesson.

a. **What it is.** The function of this type of lesson is not merely repetition, but a *new view* of the materials of lessons previously covered. Its values should be realized in the form of a better organization of these mental materials and of a greater ease of recall. The spelling lessons should be reviewed, say, once every

two weeks by means of the spelling match. Arithmetic topics should be continually reviewed by the teacher's frequent assignment, along with the ordinary advance lesson, of examples or topics previously covered and also by regular review lessons. Review summaries should be made weekly in history, hygiene, and geography. Review of reading lessons may be had as stories in the "Story Half-Hour." Review lessons are more in place in content subjects; practice, in form subjects.

The Jesuits used to begin every lesson with a review of the lesson of the day before; they reviewed the week's work at the end of the week; they reviewed the month's work at the end of the month; the year's work at the end of the year; and, at the end of the whole course, the students reviewed it all by teaching it. If teachers neglect their reviews, they will fail to conserve the effects of their teaching. They should keep in mind that mere repetitions, especially in content subjects, is not sufficient.

b. Conditions of a good review:

- 1) Requirements that all previous lessons should have been thoroughly prepared;
- 2) Not assigning too much to be reviewed in one lesson;
- 3) The knowledge and organization by the teacher of the subject as a whole;
- 4) Leading pupils to organize the content of a subject into large units, coördinating main points and properly subordinating less important points; and
- 5) Helping them carefully word and outline review summaries, to show relative values of points.

The *review lesson* must seek to get a better organization and synthesis of the materials of previous lessons. It must result in a new and larger view of the subject thus far. Until the students have learned how to guide themselves, teachers should not leave them to

themselves to review, unaided. Students need to be taught how to review, as well as how to study. Proper review will not be a "cramming" process. It will be a more vital assimilation of mental food. The teacher should direct the students from the beginning of the course so that they will get the big things that ought to be had. These can easily be reviewed and reorganized. If proper studying and teaching have gone on, students should review two weeks' work quite effectively in the same time that it takes to prepare one lesson the first time. The teacher may sometimes give a list of big summarizing or reflective questions, as a help in reviews.

10. The examination lesson.

a. **Meaning and purpose.** The function of this lesson type is not to *test* pupils in their work. It is a poor teacher, indeed, who, after being in charge of a class for a half-year, needs the ordinary examination for the sole purpose of testing the work of the pupils. The teacher should already know what has been done in that class. Nevertheless, examinations are the usual mode of *test*. The most important function of the examination lesson, however, is that of *review*. It certainly is a motive for review. If children be taught how to review for examination, it will be a real review, and not a matter of "cramming."

b. **Need.** It is a mistake to excuse students from examination on the basis of good class work, for the following reasons:

- 1) They need the review for which the examination provides a motive; .

- 2) They soon find out the probability of their not being required to take the examination and feel no need to try to retain what they have covered; psychologically, they need to retain what they have learned over a con-

siderable period of time to result in the proper mental “set”; and

3) Pupils, standing high in class work and expecting to be excused from examination, have been found by examination to need the review for examination even more than some who stood low in class work.

Examinations may be had through questions involving *reproduction* of what has been learned. A better way is through exercises which involve the *use* of the materials of the examination. A better examination in spelling is the writing of a connected piece of discourse containing the words upon which the pupils are to be examined; in arithmetic, by working some new examples by application of the principle used in working previous examples; in hygiene, by applying the factors of health to the school, or home premises. However, the teacher has no right to hold children responsible on examination for anything that has not been thoroughly taught previously. Many examination questions must be of the reproduction work. In some subjects it is allowable, and even advisable to conduct reviews leading to examinations. The teacher thus reviews all the important things, and the examination questions must come from among these important things. In this the teacher's aim is not to prepare for the examination, but to be sure that the children know what they ought to have learned, or can do what they should have learned to do.

~~The teacher should never say, “Don't you remember that?” or “I told you that last week,” or “What's the matter with you—can't you remember anything?” It is the teacher's duty so to teach and to review the lessons that the average child in the class will remember what ought to be remembered. To use such expressions as the foregoing is unjustifiable nagging. Let the teacher~~

take it to himself or herself and ask this sort of a question: "What was wrong with my teaching that the children did not remember this thing?" It is also an inexcusable method in which a teacher strives to "catch the pupils napping," or not knowing what is asked. On the other hand, it is our peculiar aim to see that they do know, or can do, what we have a reasonable right to expect them to know or to do. Let the test material be selected from such.

c. Conditions of an effective examination lesson.

- 1) Careful and thorough teaching in advance;
- 2) No "snap" tests;
- 3) Making it a really motivating agent for proper review;
- 4) Attempting previously to see that every child understands the material and never purposing to "catch pupils napping"; and
- 5) Being thoroughly frank and clear with pupils as for what abilities or knowledges they will be held responsible.

Summary of Our Study of Lesson Types.

1. **The inductive lesson** is one in which the fundamental purpose is to study several specific cases, to ascertain the common fact or facts about all, and to state the common fact as a rule.

2. **The deductive lesson** is one in which the fundamental purpose is to start out with a rule or principle (which may have to be sought for) and apply it to a specific case or cases, for the purpose of solving a problem, illustrating the rule or principle, testing it, or further developing it.

3. **The expository lesson** is one in which the preponderant purpose is to explain, when time does not permit nor importance demand inductive treatment, that which pupils do not understand.

4. **The practice lesson** is one whose fundamental purpose is to render learned reactions habitual and automatic.

5. **The appreciation lesson** is one in which the pupils are to be taught to enjoy intelligently the things of beauty, rhythm, symmetry and the ideal.

6. **The information lesson** is one in which the purpose is to have pupils acquire information which will render their future lives more efficient.

7. **The expression lesson** is one in which the fundamental purpose is to create conditions that shall lead pupils to express through action, construction or language that which they think or feel.

8. **The study lesson** is one in which children are taught how to study the subjects of their curriculum.

9. **The review lesson** is one whose purpose is to have children get a new and larger view of what they have previously covered.

10. **The examination lesson** is one whose purpose is fundamentally to motivate review by the children and incidentally to test the efficiency of the children's school work.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

A. Appreciation.

1. What is it? In what subjects should it be a fundamental purpose? Distinguish appreciation and enjoyment.
2. In what subjects has enjoyment been most intense with you? What caused it, the nature of the subject, the method by which it was taught, the personality of your teacher, or something else?
3. Is it worth while that appreciation in high degree should

accompany the study of literature, music, art, nature?
How induce this appreciation?

4. Would it enhance the probabilities of children's enjoyment of music, literature, painting, nature, if the children themselves sometimes composed the music for a song, wrote a poem, painted a picture, cared for a flower garden? Why?
5. What do you enjoy most? Why? Can you connect up the reason actuating you in this enjoyment with the subjects ordinarily mentioned as being worth while for appreciation?
6. What conditions make for a good appreciation lesson?

B. Information.

1. What sorts of information is it worth while that children should acquire?
2. Will information acquired be remembered, if not used? Can information be kept permanently in "cold storage"? Should anything be learned, if through non-use it is likely soon to be forgotten? Why?
3. Make a list of conditions that will enhance the probability that useful information acquired by children in school will not be forgotten, but translated into habit and character?

C. Expression.

1. What does "expression" ordinarily mean? What does it mean as used in this chapter?
2. What are the kinds of expression possible in school work? Can expression be provided for in history and geography? How?
3. Can there be any "impression" without a corresponding "expression"? Why? Is it a teacher's duty to provide definitely for proper expression in all her school subjects? Why?
4. What conditions make for a good expression lesson?

D. Study.

1. What is meant by studying?
2. Can you teach children how to study? How would you do it in spelling; in arithmetic; in history; in geography; in reading; in hygiene?
3. Do you know how to study efficiently? Can you probably study more efficiently than your immature pupils? Can you show them how to study particular lessons? How would you go about showing them?
4. Is a teacher justified in permitting children to waste their time in efforts at study, when their methods of study are very inefficient? Why?

5. What conditions make for a good study lesson?

E. Review.

1. What is a review lesson? What is its chief purpose?

2. In what subjects does it have a place? Name these subjects.

3. Take each of these subjects and show how to conduct an efficient review in them.

4. What is the relation of application to review?

5. How frequently would you have reviews? Would they vary in frequency with the different subjects? How?

6. What conditions make for a good review lesson?

7. Ought a teacher to give children a number of review questions, of large scope, covering *all* important points, to guide them in review? Give reasons.

F. Examination.

1. What are the chief purposes served by examinations?

2. Should problems or questions on examination be reproductive or applicational? To what extent?

3. If a teacher does really good teaching, what per cent of her children ought to fail, usually?

4. A teacher in charge of a class of 40 children for a whole year promoted only 20 of these children. Discuss.

5. To what extent ought a teacher to be guided by the results of her examinations in giving the children marks or in promoting them?

6. Should children who do well on class work be excused from the monthly or semi-annual examinations? Why?

7. What conditions make for a good examination lesson?

G. 1. Name the lesson types.

2. State the meaning of each.

CHAPTER V

TEACHING AIMS

1. Meaning of aim. A teaching aim is simply a goal of achievement in educational work. It is a statement of a result to be accomplished. It is the establishing of a point to be reached. It is the determination of a task to be done.

The meaning may be better understood in terms of values. A State Superintendent of Public Instruction has said in a public address, "The greatest source of waste and weakness in teaching is its aimlessness." He said truly. Let the teacher endeavor to eliminate this waste and transform this weakness into strength by asking herself every day in every lesson, "What is my aim here?" Let her go to her task with a definite concrete statement of her aim or aims. Thus will her own strength and nerves be conserved, and the children's work will take on new meaning. Take the children into your confidence and let them know your aims, and they will work to help you achieve them.

In F. M. McMurry's admirable book, "How to Study and Teaching How to Study," he says, in the third chapter, that *specific purposes* are valuable,

1) "as a source of motive power;"

2) "as a basis of organization of facts;" and

3) "as a promise of a practical outcome in life."

It is a great step toward good motivation to have your teaching aims concrete, definite, specific, particular. In attempting to organize facts, one often treats them all

as of equal value, not distinguishing between large facts and small ones, not knowing which to select because of importance nor which to omit because of non-importance. To be sure, facts are important in a given situation only in proportion to the extent to which they contribute to the achievement of aims.

Aims may be thought of as being either the teacher's aims or those of the pupils. The teacher's aims include those of the pupils, but are broader and are stated in more comprehensive terms. This is very striking in the case of the primary grades; however, as children grow older, their aims come to be stated more and more nearly in the terms used in the statement of the teacher's aims.

2. The teacher's aim is threefold:

a. **It is the whole aim of education.** In the first place, it is an attempt to do a worthy part in the making of efficient persons; but this is manifold.

1) Efficiency as a citizen is *physical*. It is the possession of a strong and healthy body, capable of resisting unnecessary diseases and of doing a good part in the world's work.

2) Efficiency is *intellectual*. It is the result of a mind trained to think upon and to solve the problems of *present* life. Intellectual efficiency is the school's traditional sphere; but the school's aim is now tremendously broadened beyond the old conception of *mental culture*.

3) Efficiency is *moral*. It is the full disposition to maintain those relations with one's fellowmen which society has come to approve. Moral efficiency is negative, as not trespassing upon the rights and efforts of others, except in so far as a fair competition may require. It is positive, as contributing to the welfare of others in the home, the community, the state, the nation,

humanity, to the extent of giving all others a square deal in every transaction of life and even to the extent of doing many things for others without the hope or expectation of a reward.

4) Efficiency is *vocational*. Every one should learn how to *earn* (not merely *make*) an honest living.

5) Efficiency is *avocational or recreational*. People must not only know how to work, but also how to use leisure time. The present day of eight hours' work may be a blessing, if we know how to use properly our leisure time. It will be a curse to us, if we do not know how to use it.

6) Efficiency is *political and civic*. Children must be taught in no uncertain way their proper relation to their state and country, their larger group relationships, or Americanism will be on the wane. As children's education progresses, love of country should become more ardent. The children should come to consider their country's enemies as their enemies and to esteem their country's friends as their friends.

7) Efficiency in citizenship *must include home-making*. The home is the unit of modern Christian civilization. Both boys and girls must learn this fact and be taught what each must do in the building of a worthy home.

8) Efficiency in citizenship is *religious*. Even aside from its traditional values, which are not denied, religion in its broad sense has ever been the great stabilizer of civilization in nations and the steadier of character in persons.

Efficiency in persons is *physical, intellectual, moral, vocational, avocational, civic, home-making, religious*. Education is a unitary process and must include all these phases. It aims to produce efficiency all along the line. The real teacher will accept the whole aim of edu-

cation as her aim. She looks down the road along which education directs a child to travel. She sees the point of efficiency as the last goal, which cannot be reached with one single element of efficiency omitted. She wants her pupil to get there. She will not neglect any part of his education to help him reach the goal of life—*efficiency*.

b. **Aim of the course.** In the second place the teacher's aim is that of the course, the goal of the year for a single subject. It is how much geography ought the fifth grade children to know; what reading ability should result in June next for third grade children; how accurately and how rapidly ought sixth grade children to do certain examples in arithmetic; how fast and how well ought seventh grade children to write; with what topics the high school class in physics should be familiar; how many books of literature must be studied and understood in fourth year high school English; and so on.

The teacher who does not know the aim for the year for a given subject in a given grade is not in possession of facts upon the basis of which she can plan the work of the year. Yet in many American schools the teachers are going on in an aimless, haphazard way. To set up an aim for the year is not to reduce your pupils to the lockstep method of advance. When a goal is set up, children will work to achieve it, if it be kept constantly before them. If they can go beyond it, let them, or any of them, go beyond it. If they cannot, let them do the work thoroughly as far as they can go. If some can go beyond the goal, if others can merely reach it, if still others cannot reach it, respect their several individual abilities to learn.

There are a few grade aims or yearly goals that have been established in recent years through the use of

standard tests and measurements. These goals are certainly worth while in stimulating pupil effort and in promoting individual pupil achievement. When you shall have had opportunity to take a course in "Educational Tests and Measurements," you will become familiar with the standard objective goals in spelling, writing, geography, history, arithmetic, composition, reading and other elementary school subjects, for the several grades year by year. You will also become familiar with such standard achievement goals in the high school subjects of algebra, geometry, physics, chemistry, English, biology, and other subjects. To be able to start in the fall, knowing just what to seek to achieve in each subject as a year's aim, is of untold value for guidance of effort during the year.

Other concrete objective yearly aims or grade goals are available in increasing numbers to teachers who wish to set up a definite "aim of the course" to be achieved by the end of the year.

Sometimes the "aims of the course" cannot be so objectively and concretely described as those above mentioned. The teacher may have to say "My aim in seventh grade history is to have the children acquire a good general, but elementary, knowledge of United States History"; or, "in fourth grade geography to learn the larger facts in general elementary geography, as presented in the first text-book of geography." In whatever form the "aim of the course" may be stated, the teacher, as she formulates such an aim, becomes a better teacher. She may formulate her aim of the course as being "to have my children know how to spell all the words in the Jones lists of spelling words for my grade"; "to have the children, in seventh grade geography, master the chief comparative facts of the continents"; "to have my children, in third

grade reading, read with enjoyment and efficiency the five books on our reading list," and so on.

By determining a goal in each grade for each subject the teacher conserves her own energy, strength, enthusiasm, nerves and health. She conserves the children's time and efforts. If she shows them the goal to be reached by next June, even though it is yet "afar off," they will help her to reach it. Thus aimlessness ceases to be a source of waste.

c. Aim of the lesson. The lesson is the task to be performed. It is the work assigned. It may be finished in a single recitation, or it may run through several. Even in the present day many lessons are aimless. They are sometimes so aimless in the teacher's mind that she does not know anything else to say, in assigning the lessons, than "get the next four pages." Oh! innocent childhood, how many sins have been committed in thy name by the teachers who knew not the *aim of education, the aim of a single course given, nor the aim of any lesson taught!*

F. M. McMurry well calls the lesson aims "specific purposes." The word *specific* must apply to lesson aims. It is not enough to say, "My aim is to teach the spelling lessons," but to say, "My aim is to have the children learn these six words so that they may all know how to spell them orally and in writing, how to pronounce them correctly and how to use them correctly in a sentence." It is not enough to say, "My aim is to teach the children a lesson in addition," but to say, "My aim is to have them master these five additive facts." It is not enough to say, "My aim is to teach the geography of New England," but to "have the children learn seven large facts concerning New England". It is not enough to aim "to teach the lesson about Marquette", but "to teach in what respects Mar-

quette was a real maker of American History." The teacher's aim, to be of worth, must be specific and definite.

3. **The pupils' aim.** The teacher's aim of the lesson, even when specifically stated, must be somewhat more comprehensive than the pupil's aim. The younger the children, the more different must be the statement of their lesson aims from that of their teacher. The teacher may aim just "to practice them in addition"; their aim may be "to see how high up the number ladder they can climb." Her aim may be "to teach the four chief points of the compass"; their aim may be "to learn those four points so as to play town" (locating buildings, etc., in right direction from each other in their town). Her aim may be "to teach the children the ten main facts about Mexico"; their aim may be "to prepare to debate the query: Resolved, That if Mexico should request, as did Texas, to be admitted to the United States, we should admit her." The difference between the teacher's and the pupils' immediate aims is real, and the teacher should note that fact. The children's lesson aim should have its statement based upon their own past experience and in terms which they can appreciate and understand.

The "aim of the lesson" should be of such character as to become a *specific purpose* on the part of the pupils. The pupils' work is made efficient to the extent that they have a real motive. Their motive should be the achieving of their lesson's specific aim. Some of the concrete, objective yearly aims already described in this chapter may become a continuing lesson aim. For example, if an aim in fifth grade arithmetic may be that of adding correctly seven examples made up of nine three-place numbers in each, it may serve as a motive for practice in addition from day to day to the

end of the year. The boy would thus build up his adding ability in the same way in which he would build up his "batting average"—by practice. The teacher should give much thought and attention to the children's aims, as well as to her own. The children's aims cannot yet include the ultimate aims of education. Their past experience does not make the appreciation of such aims possible in any high degree. The goals must, for a time, be closer at hand, of such character as to make their achievement seem worth while.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. What are the aims of education? What does knowing the aims of education have to do with teaching in a school room?
2. Take the list of elementary school subjects. What do you consider the chief aims of each? Which of the elementary school subjects could be omitted from the elementary school program without loss from education? Why?
3. Take the subjects studied by the children which you teach.

- What is the year's aim in the case of each subject? If you do not know, ask your supervisor, or principal, or superintendent; consult your course of study. Ask six other teachers. When you find out, write it down to keep.
4. Take your school subjects and select from each one lesson. What is the central aim of each of these lessons? Write it out in words in each case.
 5. In the case of each of these lessons, what possible aims can you see from the standpoint of your children which will serve as motives to them, stimulating them to attack the work with vigor?
 6. Make a list of all the values that will result from your having well chosen yearly aims in each of your subjects.
 7. Make a similar list of values that will result from your having a clear-cut aim in each lesson which you teach, writing each in the form of a short sentence.
 8. What values come to children from their having an aim which they *feel* and which impels them on to vigorous work?
 9. State the aim in a phrase in each of the following topics:
Decimal fractions. (Arithmetic)
The Battle of Saratoga. (History)
The New England States. (Geography)
The poem, "I Shot an Arrow in the Air." (Literature.)
Six spelling words (choosing them yourself).
Malaria. (Hygiene)
Voting. (Civics)
 10. How do proper aims for children differ from proper aims for a teacher?

CHAPTER VI

THE ASSIGNMENT OF LESSONS

1. What the assignment is. The assignment of a lesson is the designation of a task to be done. It is the naming of a certain subject-matter to be studied. It is the laying out of a certain amount and kind of work to be accomplished. It is the giving of a problem to be solved. It is the setting of a goal to work toward. It is also the prescription of the manner of doing the task designated. It is not only the designation of the material to be studied, but the suggestion of how to study it. It is not only the specifying of matter to work upon, but the setting up of a purpose for the work and, sometimes, a demonstration of the method of accomplishing the purpose. In short, the assignment is simply the laying out of a task and procedure for mental work.

2. The parts of an assignment are as follows:

(1) **a. The introduction, to establish a proper attitude of mind on the part of the pupils.** This is very necessary. Thus is developed a motive for studying the material assigned. Children then feel that the subject-matter is worth while. They are brought to appreciate it as meeting a need in their lives. To the extent that they value it thus, is its very educativeness increased. The more they do appreciate the work, the task, the material assigned, the more certain are the educative effects of the lesson assigned. Interest is said to be a *feeling of value*. The introduction should aim to arouse

this sort of interest in the lesson to be done. The passing from "the known to the unknown" must be carefully made here. The apperceptive connection must be definitely established. The relation of the new knowledge to the old knowledge must be so apparent that the pupil will be inclined of himself to see it. Once when the author was studying a modern foreign language, his professor would have the class read, in advance, to a point at which interest would be high, and then assign the next lesson. The students would go away, hardly willing to wait until a vacant study-hour to begin reading to discover the facts which they guessed at as appearing just ahead in our reading.

The assignment needs to be introduced so as to establish the setting of the new lesson with reference to the previous knowledge and the probable future needs of the student. This attitude of mind may be built up through use of the telling method or that of development through questions, or through noting related incidents.

b. The assignment definite. After developing a motive for the new lesson and arousing interest in the new material to be studied, after establishing the proper attitude of mind on the part of the pupils towards the lesson to be assigned and giving its setting, the teacher proceeds to the designation of the task to be done. It is the giving of a certain chapter or chapters or pages in history to read; the designation of so many examples on certain pages to be worked; the stating of certain questions to be answered from a specified reading of history, geography or hygiene; the assigning of so many words in a certain word-list to be learned or used in sentences; and so on.

The need, in any of these cases, is that the text assignment be *definite*, so that no pupil may feel the

(2)

need to ask another, "What is the lesson?" or to come back the next day and claim that he did not know what the assignment was. The teacher may actually call on a pupil, after the test assignment has been made, to state to the class just what the assignment is. The author has visited classes in which the test assignment was so indefinite that immediately pupils were seen asking each other what the assignment was. Such a practice is inexcusable. The children have a right to have their efforts and time economized. The day has passed when a teacher will turn a pupil loose in a laboratory with a fish in his hand, and no other instructions, or send him home with a book in his hands and no definite point of concentration. Let the text assignment be *definite*.

The text assignment will, in most cases, be of such character as to require practically the same kind of work on the part of all pupils.

c. Outside assignments. In subjects like history, hygiene, geography, and others, outside assignments may be given, sometimes to all members of the class; but in most cases to individual pupils or students. In geography, a great deal of material supplementary to the text may be secured for the class. Geographical readers or magazine articles may be read in individual, outside, supplementary assignments, and reported to the class in connection with topics to which they apply. Historical readings, original sources, special articles, may be read by individuals and reported to the class, for the vitalizing and enrichment of the history recitation. Individual assignments may be made to be done in connection with reading on manual arts, as contributions to the class. These outside individual assignments are in place of many lessons and should be made

as definite, both as to materials and persons, as the regular text assignments.

d. **Clearing up unusual difficulties.** In the assignment of a spelling lesson, if there be words of peculiar difficulty, they may be written on the board in white crayon, but with the letters involving the difficulty of pronunciation written in colored crayon, as the first *i* in *definite*. In the assignment of a reading lesson, the words difficult of pronunciation should be put on the board and pronounced, or their pronunciation developed by the teacher, the children pronouncing after her as a bit of preparation for reading privately their lesson. The children need not waste their time over unnecessary difficulties. In the assignment of arithmetic, or algebra, or geometry lesson, those problems of exceedingly great difficulty should be anticipated by the teacher and some assistance rendered in connection with them.

Sample problems in arithmetic may be worked out on the board by the teacher, to show the children how to do them. The "*imitation method*" is in place frequently, even in mathematics. In history, too, some difficulties appear. Some students have trouble in connection with wars and other historical facts because of inability to locate places. The teacher should prepare the mind of the students against such difficulties. In geography assignments, the difficulty may lie in pronunciation of words, or in just what use to make of the materials assigned. In grammar, peculiar constructions may cause much loss of time and interest, unless prepared against in the assignment.

In these subjects the difficulty frequently is one of how to attack the problem. The teacher needs to give some instruction as to the method of procedure. She needs to teach her children *how to study*, as well

as to assign them lessons to study. She may show them how to outline or record the facts that they are getting. She may show them how to organize the subject-matter. She may teach them how to review a given lesson. She may demonstrate the superiority of the *whole* or of the *intermediate method* of memorizing over the *part method*. *How to study* is a real difficulty. Let it be anticipated and taught.

Colgrove says, in "The Teacher and the School," page 287:

"If pupils are left to plunge into these difficulties unwarned and unassisted, only a few of the brightest will succeed in floundering through the lesson. The rest will back out. The teacher should not withhold the proper help under the mistaken notion that pupils should be left to work out their salvation unaided. Only the elect can be saved by such a process. Knowing the specific lesson and the class, the teacher should give such aid in attacking the difficulties of the lesson as will enable the average pupil to prepare it well. The brightest pupils should be given some additional work and the slowest pupils should receive individual help. No pupil who has the spirit to work should be permitted to fail in the preparation of the lesson because of the inherent difficulties of the text book."

e. The assignment as a problem. Whenever possible, it is well to have the assignment culminate in the statement of a problem for the next lesson, which will run through the entire lesson, or through several lessons, become its core and give it direction. Such a problem becomes the basis of organization of facts; it becomes also the standard of values for the recitation. Facts may be selected, neglected or supplemented by virtue of the problem. The average teacher probably cannot subject all lesson materials to problem treatment. However, when it can be done, the teaching takes on new life and the children's educative process

is enhanced many-fold. The excellence of teaching in mathematics in former times, and the great interest in this branch of human knowledge, were due to the *problems* involved. (Sample problems may be found in this book under the head of "Methods," sub-topic "Problem Method.") If other subjects may be given the same problem treatment, but providing for use of large problems, and necessitating a suspension of judgment until all the facts are in, a better thinker in terms of modern life will be produced than by one's thinking through the average mathematics problems. Whenever possible, let the assignment culminate in the statement of a problem in words within the understanding of the students.

3. When to be made. The assignment of the next lesson comes best when made at the close of the recitation period. There should be left a little time, before the period closes, in which to make the assignment. Five minutes in many cases, ten minutes in a few cases, may be well spent thus. Sometimes when a large topic is to be assigned for advanced classes, a topic large enough to run through several recitation periods, a whole period may profitably be used in its careful assignment. If a teacher is inclined to run over-time and to have no part of the recitation period left in which to make the assignment properly, then, and only then, is it right to make the assignment in the first part of the recitation period.

4. Limitations of the assignment. Some lessons are not usually to be assigned as class exercises. In the common speech the term "assignment," while it might properly be so used, is not used to designate work given only in the recitation period. Some lessons are not to be assigned for study previous to the recitation, as the first lesson in a new topic in arithmetic or grammar. Such need to be taught, by way of exposition or induc-

tion, and then assigned to be reviewed as a part of the preparation for the next recitation. All lessons assigned for home work, or for seat work, need to have their assignment modified by the grade of advancement, or by the age and experience of the pupils. The words used, the language employed, the problems suggested, the amount of work assigned, the questions asked, and the like, must all be tempered in accordance with the apperceptive ability of students.

5. The bases of the assignment. In order to make properly an assignment, the teacher needs to know three things:

a. He or she needs to know the *pupils*. This has been discussed on pages 3 and 4 of this volume. The teacher must begin with the pupils' knowledge, not with their ignorance, to teach them.

b. The teacher must know the *subject* in its large units. He has probably passed the subject in previous years, but needs to have prepared the lesson just previous to its assignment. The careful and thorough preparation of the lesson to be assigned, on the evening before it is to be assigned, with reference to the pupils in mind, will be a means of mental economy for the pupils and a source of inspiration to the teacher.

c. The teacher needs also to know the values of different *methods* available for teaching. The lesson should be assigned with a view to being taught by a method, or by methods, which will be used in the recitation. The assignment of a hygiene lesson to be recited by the *discussion* method would not go well, if the teacher employed the *telling* method, or vice versa.

6. Assumptions in assignments.

a. It is assumed that *the pupils have the ability to do the work assigned*. If not, it would be useless to make such an assignment. The teacher must know just what

ability, or abilities, the children have with reference to the subject and topic in hand.

b. It is assumed also that *the pupils have the time and opportunity for study*—a sufficient amount of time for doing the mental task to be done. They must have the health necessary for mental work. They must have the means, the books, the supplies, the materials needed, in preparing the lesson assigned.

c. It is assumed, too, that the foregoing being true, *the pupils will be held responsible for the doing of the work*, the preparation of the lesson assigned. This is necessary. It is a part of the teacher's general method whether or not the pupils are held responsible for each lesson assigned. The pupils soon "size up" a teacher as to his or her requirements. If the teacher is lax in the holding of pupils responsible for the lessons assigned, the pupils' work will be inefficient, their mental efforts dissipated and the whole educative process weakened for them. Of course exceptions should be made for illness or other uncontrollable causes for non-preparation of lessons.

7. Summary. The *assignment* is the designation of a task for mental work. Its parts are the establishment of a proper attitude of mind on the part of the pupils, the making of assignments both in text and outside of text definite as to persons and matter, the clearing up of unusual difficulties, and, when possible, the statement of the assignment as a problem. The assignment should usually be made at the end of the recitation period. Ordinarily the term assignment is limited to certain subjects for home work or seat work and modified by the apperceptive ability of the pupils. A proper assignment is based upon a knowledge of the pupils, a knowledge of the subject and a knowledge of methods of teaching. It is assumed that pupils to

whom mental tasks are assigned have the ability to do them; that they have the time, health, means and opportunity for study; and that they will be held responsible for the doing of the work assigned.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. What is the "assignment"? What is its purpose? What are its parts?
2. How can you show in the assignment how to study—
a lesson in spelling (you selecting the words);
a lesson in reading, Ruskin's King of the Golden River;
a lesson in the geography of the Southern States;
a lesson in hygiene, the prevention of typhoid fever;
a lesson in language, the use of the comma?
3. Write out, so as to show the parts discussed, assignments of one lesson familiar to you in each of the following subjects:

Arithmetic;	Geography;
Reading;	History;
Spelling;	Hygiene.

4. Can a teacher always put the blame for poor class work on the pupils? Why?
5. To what extent does a child's age, or grade, influence assignments?
6. Would you assign for home work anything to children under the fifth grade? What? What sort? To children under the fourth grade? What? What sort of work?
7. How important do you consider careful assignments of work to children both for home work and for seat work? How many minutes should the assignment cover? How would this vary with subjects, with grades and with certain topics in subjects?

CHAPTER VII

THE RESULTS EXPECTED

WHEN a teacher has in mind a certain aim of the course to be achieved by the end of the year, and, as a part of that, a certain aim to be achieved in a given lesson, it is of great importance to give the "aim of the lesson" somewhat more concrete form, by stating just what results she expects to have accomplished as evidence that her aim has been achieved. She may *aim* to teach the children five words in spelling. As evidence of that, she may *expect* at the end of the recitation, to have all the children in the class be able to spell correctly, orally by letters and by syllables, all five of these words; she may expect all the children to be able, at the end of the lesson, to pronounce correctly all these words; and that all the children by reason of this teaching will be able to use these words correctly in sentences of their own making. In arithmetic, she may aim to teach how to divide one decimal fraction by another decimal fraction; but, as evidence of the achievement of her aim, she may *expect* all the children to work out, without help, at their seats, and be ready to hand in the first ten examples following after the teacher's teaching. In other words, the "Results Expected" in a given lesson represent but a more concrete way of stating the lesson aim.

The teacher in fifth grade history may aim to teach the story of Marquette. The pupils may *aim* to find out whether Marquette was a real maker of American his-

tory. As evidence of the achievement of the teacher's aim, and as a basis of the children's discussion of whether he was a maker of American history, the teacher may *expect* the children to know (1) that French dreams of empire in America led Marquette to make a trip down the Mississippi on which trip he lost his life; and (2), as a result of his trip and death, that other Frenchmen living along the Great Lakes were induced to explore still further the Mississippi River. She may *aim* to teach the geography of New England. As evidence of the achievement of this aim, at the end of one or of several recitations covering this lesson, she may expect the children to know New England as a manufacturing section, (1) because one fifteenth of the people of the United States must live here on one sixty-fourth of the land of the United States; (2) that its surface and soils are of such character that only one eighth of the people can live by agriculture; (3) that the climate in winter is cold enough to make an indoor occupation a favorite one; (4) that its drainage is of such character as to make water power plentiful and cheap; and (5) that, as a result of these facts, one half of the people are employed in manufacturing, while the rest are engaged in agriculture, fishing, commerce and mining; and so on.

Unless the teacher knows the pupils well enough to know what to expect from them in a given subject in the way of concrete results to be accomplished, the work of the recitation must, of necessity, be to some extent inefficient and haphazard.

In the daily preparation of a given lesson the teacher should ask herself, "What facts have I a reasonable right to expect these children to *know*, as a result of my teaching this lesson, or what may I expect them to be able to do as its results?" In teaching writing, what

speed and what quality can she expect as results of her teaching? In teaching addition in arithmetic, how many examples made up of nine 3-place numbers are to be expected in 8 minutes? If she aims to teach the causes of the spread of diseases, what facts has she a right to expect the children to know, when the lesson is over?

In the preparation of a lesson to be taught, the teacher will do well to state and to write down "her aim of the lesson." She will then do still better to state it and write it down, in terms of knowledge to be gained or of an ability to be reached, as a result of the work of the lesson. In a *content* lesson there are three or four or five rather big facts that should be mastered in their organized relation to each other. Find out what these are in that lesson and see that the children are taught to know them. In a *form* lesson, there is a degree of skill to be acquired. Find out what it is and expect it. The latter may be to write 50 letters a minute in as good a quality as 50 on the Ayers Scale in Hand-writing. It may be to multiply seven 4-place numbers by 2-place numbers in six minutes. It may be to write as good a composition as 31 on the Hillegas Scale in Composition. Whatever it is, if the teacher knows what result she has a reasonable right to expect from her children by virtue of her teaching of a given lesson, she has gone a long way toward success in teaching.

REFERENCES FOR FURTHER READING

Re-examine the references given at close of Chapter V for their bearings on the topic of this chapter.

CLASS PROBLEMS

1. What concrete results would you have a reasonable right to expect children to exhibit at the close of recitations on the following topics (fifth grade)?
Linear measure, in arithmetic;

The British Isles, in geography;

The use of the three most important punctuation marks,
in language;

The spelling of five words (you choose them);

The story of Benjamin Franklin, in history;

Daily exercise, in hygiene.

2. Take other topics taught in your room, to suit the grade, and state carefully the concrete results reasonably to be expected. Ask three other persons, whether teachers or not, to criticize your statements in these cases.

CHAPTER VIII

METHODS OF TEACHING—1

1. **What method is.** Method is the procedure by which a goal is reached, a purpose accomplished or a result achieved. It is *how* you get the thing done. Method, in general, is very much more comprehensive in its scope than many teachers think. It includes every way that a teacher does everything, the very expression of her face, the tone of her voice, the geniality of her soul, the comradeship of her manner. In whatever way the teacher causes changes in pupils, whether for the better or for the worse, there *method* is going on. Wherever and whenever results are being accomplished in the form of *changes in pupils*, whether those results be expected or unexpected, desirable or undesirable, through influence of the teacher, her methods are at work. Nor does it stop here. *Method* even includes what a teacher *does not do*. A teacher may *not* supervise the play at times, and the children learn from the vile and filthy boy the habits of vulgarity and profanity. She may *not* require them to use correct language in recitation, and the *children are changed* for the worse in more confirmed habits of bad language. She may *not* require the children to express their arithmetic work accurately, and the pupils acquire habits of inaccuracy and carelessness. She may *not* engage in questionable amusements and the children, through love for and imitation of her, *are changed* for the better by her influence in what she *did not do*.

Not only is this true of the methods of teachers; it is also true of the methods of parents. Dr. John Dewey¹ tells of a little boy who was in the yard. His mother was calling him. He made no response. Some one passing asked him why he did not answer his mother. He replied, "She does not call mad yet." Yes, *methods of teaching* include all that we do and also what we do not do, in causing changes in pupils, whether those changes be desirable or undesirable, expected or not expected.

2. The problem of methods. This problem is simply what methods we shall employ. Its solution depends upon what we consider to be

- a. The type of lesson;
- b. The aim or aims of the lesson, and the results to be expected in these pupils in so far as this lesson is to effect them;
- c. The subject;
- d. The grade or age or maturity of the pupils;
- e. The individuality of pupils;
- f. The home environment;
- g. The books and school materials available; and
- h. The character of the daily program.

The teacher will do well to ponder deeply her choice of methods. Knowing what results she feels that she has a reasonable right to expect, she proceeds to employ those methods that are to be most efficient and most economical in producing those results and achieving the aims set up.

3. What may influence one's choice of methods.

a. Type of lesson. In a deductive or an inductive lesson, the development method will have large place. In an information lesson the topical and the discussion methods will be much used. In a practice lesson the

¹Dewey, John: *How We Think*, p. 47.

questioning would be little used. In an appreciation lesson the teacher would not often resort to the showing method. And so forth.

b. **The teacher's aim of the lesson and the results expected.** She will vary her method in accordance with her aims. If she aim to teach them four important facts about Nathaniel Bacon, she may use the combined methods of topical report and discussion. If she aim to teach how to work division of common fractions, she may use the development method. If she aim to teach them the ten important facts of geography about Mexico, she may use the contest method, in the form of a debate. If she aim to review the children on the words used in spelling for the last two weeks, she may use the contest method in the form of a spelling match. So the correct choice of methods must depend upon the teacher's aim of the lesson. In accordance with what concrete results she expects from this lesson, she chooses her methods with a view to accomplishing those results.

c. **The subject.** While a teacher may send the children to the board to work examples in arithmetic, that would not be a common method in the history recitation. While the teacher may *count* for practice in writing, she would not often do so in the reading recitation. While the telling method has large place in beginning history, it has small place only in the fundamentals of arithmetic. The teacher needs to learn what methods are most efficient in the several subjects which she may teach.

d. **Grade or age or maturity of pupils.** The teacher must modify her methods of teaching to suit the degree of maturity of the pupils, as indicated by the age of the pupils or the grade in which they are enrolled. The teacher may well use dramatization methods in the

primary grades, but they are not successful in as large a degree in upper grammar and high school grades. While the lecture method is sometimes in place with adults, it has little place in school life, except at general exercises. Let the method be chosen or modified to suit the children. Methods are for children, not children for methods, and must vary with the degree of maturity of children.

e. **The individuality of pupils.** Too little attention has been given to the individuality, and too little respect has been paid the *self*, of pupils. We should respect the individuality of a pupil as it is, with reference to what it may become. There is a very big difference among pupils as to their disposition and ability to do school work. Did you know that the two per cent best spellers in the second grade can spell as well the words of the Ayres Spelling Scale as the two per cent poorest spellers in the eighth grade? That the one fifth best pupils in any grade can spell as well as the lowest fifty per cent in the grade just above it? That 37 per cent of the pupils of a grade write as well as the lower 50 per cent of the grade just above it, and that 24 per cent of them in any grade write as well as the lower 50 per cent of the grade second above it? The ability of a pupil promoted to a higher grade is not necessarily superior to the average ability of the pupils left behind. The best third of the pupils of a given grade can do the reading work of the grade above as well as the lower half of the pupils of the latter grade. The foregoing statements are drawn from Starch's *Educational Measurements*.¹ Parker says in his *Methods of High School Teaching*: "Bright pupils may have half of their time to loaf."² The teacher needs to give con-

¹ Starch, Daniel W.: *Educational Measurements*, pp. 40, 88, 98.

² Parker, S. C.: *Methods of High School Teaching*, p. 371.

sideration to the bright pupils to keep them busy. "It is intense effort that educates."¹ A bright pupil with little to do may be adversely affected by staying in school through the acquisition of habits of indolence and laziness. On the other hand he might be encouraged to finish the preparation of his lessons in order to have the privilege of reading a certain book on the teacher's desk. He may take arithmetic, or any subject, in two grades. A pupil may be especially encouraged in the subject in which he is apt and interested, for here is where he is "born long." He must be shown sympathy and help in the subjects in which he is weak, for here he is "born short." If he is of defective vision, or of defective hearing, his parents should be advised, and he should be seated advantageously. At any rate, in whatever way a child is individual and different from the average child, the teacher should modify her method to serve best that child.

f. **Home environment.** Here, particularly in assignments and requirements, the teacher's method must consider the home environment. Some children have so many home duties to perform that home study is almost out of the question, while others, with no such duties, have several hours of available time. Some children, if they study at all at home, must do so in the room with all the rest of the family. The teacher should consider all these peculiar difficulties under which the children work so as not to require an unreasonable task of any pupils.

g. **Books and other school materials available.** In some communities it is difficult to get text-books, and especially supplementary books and materials. The teacher should modify her method in terms of such

¹ From study by Bryan and Harter, quoted by E. L. Thorndike. *Educational Psychology*, Vol. II, p. 90.

difficulties as are for the time being insurmountable.

h. Character of the daily program. The teacher cannot employ altogether the same methods in a one-room school as in a one-grade room. Whether there may be one, two or more grades in a room must modify the teacher's methods in some degree.

4. Combination of methods. The successful teacher must of necessity use several methods in one recitation. One method is the predominant one. Others are subsidiary. She may have as the major method that of topical report. She may supplement that by the methods of discussion and questions, and so forth.

5. Devices. Devices may be thought of simply as *little methods*, or as parts of a larger method. A device usually involves the use of concrete materials, or concrete procedures, which may be objects or ideas. The game is a device; so is the contest. The teacher's drawing of a map on the board is a device; so is an outline or a list of study questions. The several little methods of practice for purposes of motivation given under the heading of "The Practice Lesson" are devices in the truest sense. *A device, then, is any little method to which a teacher resorts as a temporary means of more effective focusing of attention of pupils upon the task to be done.*

6. The more prominent methods employed by teachers are as follows:

- a. The story method.
- b. The lecture method.
- c. The laboratory or experimental method.
- d. The discovery method.
- e. The inductive method.
- f. The telling method.
- g. The development method.
- h. The showing method.
- i. The recitation method.

- j. The method of topical report.
- k. The dramatic method.
- l. The conversation method.
- m. The discussion method.
- n. The problem method.
- o. The project method.
- p. The contest method.
- q. The objective method.
- r. The deductive, practice, expressive methods.
- s. Questions.

a. The story method. In the childhood of the race the story was the regular method of passing racial experience over to the rising generation. Story-telling has large place in primary grades. The Great Teacher made large use of stories for illustrations. To children the story is a fascinating method. The content of the great classics may best be transmitted through the story method. G. Stanley Hall says, "Of all the things that a teacher should know, how to be able to tell a story is without exception the most important." The teacher may tell the stories and the children may tell them back to her. Fairy stories, hero stories, animal stories, stories of myths,—all have their place. Short stories may be used as the introduction to a recitation.

The art of story-telling may be, and should be, acquired by practice. This applies to parents as well as to teachers. The author tested the Juniors and Seniors of the Radford Normal School one year as to their knowledge of 283 most frequently used stories in the several excellent sets of school readers now on the American school book market. The average of these girls had a recognition knowledge of 31 per cent of these stories. One girl knew 83 per cent of them. She explained her superior knowledge by saying that in her childhood her mother told nearly all these stories to her.

The following hints may be of value in story-telling:

1) Speak as naturally as possible, but with some enthusiasm.

2) Tell the story by points, so that the children may see the steps of its development. Sometimes actually write these points on the board.

3) Know the story well enough to tell its substance fluently in short, complete sentences, religiously avoiding the "and" habit.

4) Try to see the events of the story take place, and try to have the children see them take place.

5) Try to arrange a "Story Half-Hour" on your program, if not for every day, then for once or twice a week.

b. **The lecture method.** This method has no place in elementary schools, except in presentation of a topic of general importance to the school as a whole, when the topic is not in their text-books. It differs from the story method in this respect: Stories are for the most part narrations, while lectures are expositions. Now that books are plentiful, the lecture method has little place even in the high school and the college. The great disadvantages of the lecture method lie in the lack of necessity for the students to study in advance, and in the lack of opportunity for expression and discussion, which are educative in so much larger way.

c. **The laboratory or experimental method.** This method has large place in the science courses of the high school and college, such as physics, chemistry, biology. It should have place in nature study in the elementary school. Its disadvantages are the teacher's belief that she has no time for it and her letting the method become too much one of pure trial and error. The former is an imaginary disadvantage. The teacher who believes in the method finds the time and uses it. The latter disadvantage can be avoided by the teacher's

so controlling the conditions as to produce in most cases favorable results. It would be inexcusable in a teacher, if the children were studying the way in which corn sprouts and comes up, to permit the experiment to go on without the introduction of moisture. A proper understanding of this method is so valuable in life that the school must make use of it frequently. Its advantages consist in its direct preparation for a needed method of life on the part of an ever-increasing number of people.

d. **The discovery method.** This method may be the same as that discussed in the preceding paragraph. However, it is here intended to be of larger scope. The teacher may put on the board a list of questions and have the children read certain chapters to *discover* the answers. She may assign the lesson on the Tar Baby to have the children *discover* how the rabbit outwitted the fox. It is putting the children in search for truth, whether in paragraphs, chapters, books, fields, laboratories, or anywhere else; to look for truths, to solve problems, to observe facts.

e. **The inductive method.** This is a special form of the *discovery method* in which specific cases are observed and compared, and their common facts discovered and generalized. The inductive procedure may be a subsidiary method in a recitation, or it may be the main method. The laboratory method may be for demonstration only, or it may be made truly inductive and scientific, if enough specific cases are provided, if close care be had as to their comparison, and if the common fact found in answer to the problem stated at the outset be carefully generalized. The advantages of the inductive method are great in training for scientific thinking. It has, however, disadvantages in some cases. It would be foolish to use three hours and ten

cases to discover at what temperature water boils. Such facts should be given by the telling method and demonstrated once by the laboratory method. It is not necessary that the child's learning of scientific fact should proceed as slowly as that of the race. Some things should be told *outright*. It would be an inexcusable waste of time to have children learn inductively all number facts, or all health facts, or all geography facts. It is inexcusable not to use it, when dealing with fundamental principles of broad application.

f. **The telling method.** Many things must *be told* the child. He may have been put through a good course in phonics, but he must be *told* the pronunciation of words like *rough, tough, through, though, thought*. He must be *told*, through reading or otherwise, the names for the forms of land, as island, cape, continent. There are many things which may be more economically told the children outright. The combination of this method with the expressive method causes them to re-inforce each other. The story and the lecture are telling methods, but in addition to them there are times when it is economical to tell a child what *he wants to know*. Why always send him to ask a book, when he, in dead earnest, asks *you*? Some things are told outright, but frequently the Socratic or development method may be substituted, so that he may discover what he wants in his own thinking. If he asks you at what temperature water freezes, *tell* him. But, if he asks you what is the "case" of the word "him" in the preceding sentence, you will not tell him. Instead you will ask two questions: "What is the relation of 'him' to any other part of the sentence?" "In what 'case' are words having that relation to verbs?" Then he answers his own question. But that is

g. **The development method.** There are some facts

which may be arrived at inductively, others deductively, by use of the carefully chosen questions, thus developing the proper answer from within the pupil's own experience. If a pupil asks you, "Why is New England a manufacturing section?" it would be easier to tell. It would be better, however, to develop the answer in a series of recitations, through some such questions as the following:

1) What proportion of the people of the United States live in the New England states? ($1/16$.)

2) To what extent will its soils support these people through agriculture? (It will support about one-eighth of them.)

3) Upon what portion of the land of the United States must they live? ($1/64$.)

4) How may the others earn a living? (Other occupations.)

5) What is its climate? (Very cold in winter.)

6) What sort of occupations would then be preferable? (Indoor.)

7) How does its surface affect its rivers? (Frequent waterfalls, affording cheap power.)

8) What occupation could be easily carried on because of this power? (Manufacturing.)

9) Answer your own question. (Since $1/16$ of the people must live on $1/64$ of the land; since agriculture will support only $1/8$ of them; since the climate is favorable to an indoor occupation; since its surface causes its rivers to afford frequent water-falls and cheap water-power, the people would come easily to engage in manufacturing.)

Such a procedure, carried on over several recitations, involving an exhaustive study of the question, becomes, too, a good example of the problem-project method.

Thorndike calls the *developing method* the "method

of stimulating helps", or the method of "helping pupils help themselves". This method has much place in geography, arithmetic, grammar. It has its limitations as to subjects and kinds of material. For example, Socrates believed that all knowledge was implicit in man's mind, and that it could be *developed* through education. We now know that facts, such as the date of the discovery of America, or the sum of 3 plus 1, or the names of the letters of the alphabet, or the height of Mount McKinley, must come into the mind, not through use of the *development* method, but as information from the outside world.

Hamilton observes in *The Recitation* that the development method, which he calls the "Socratic Method", (1) avoids direct instruction; (2) leads the learner to make a statement about the subject under consideration; (3) requires the teacher to detect the soundness or absurdity of the statement of the opinion, but not assert it; (4) causes the learner to examine that statement and to weigh that opinion; and (5) leads the pupil to revise or reaffirm the statement, to reject or accept the opinion.

h. The showing method. This method, when combined with the telling and development methods, makes for both reflection and economy. However, there are some things that must be *shown* outright, as was true with the *telling method*. The teacher should *show*, by going through the actual movement, beginners how to make the letters in writing. She must *show* them how to raise or lower the voice in reading. She must *show* them how to put down arithmetic examples, when working them. She must *show* them how to outline a lesson which they are to report. She must *show* them how to play certain games. Even the distinguished educational scientist will not let a man, who may be a

trained professor of Education and prominent teacher, give the Binet Tests for him until the scientist has *shown how to give them*. The showing or imitation method is not to be despised. Many of the fundamental lessons of life are learned through imitation. True individuality consists not in the deliberate avoidance of imitation, but in the choosing of worthy models for imitation. Let the teacher endeavor to be a model worthy of imitation in language, writing, arithmetic work, reading. The showing or imitation method is in place in school situations in which the "form" of something constitutes a large element. The purposive showing on the part of the teacher should be in the early stages of a subject or process. It should certainly involve showing *how to study*. A pupil asks a teacher for individual assistance in certain subjects. If the teacher may give this individual help through use of the development method, without losing more time than its use justifies in the individual case, it is well. In many cases, however, the use of either the telling or the showing method is the most economical and effective.

The choice of a method is a judgment factor, and it is a teacher's responsibility to choose the method that will be most effective in a given instance. The true bases of the correct choice of the proper method, in general, are (1) a thorough knowledge of the child and of childhood, and (2) the thorough knowledge of the subject-matter.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. Discuss the meaning of "method".
2. Does method include what a teacher does outside of school hours? Why?
3. Does it include what a teacher *does not do*? Why? How?
4. State all the ways in which you would vary your method in teaching a lesson in your schoolroom. Re-answer in terms of b, c, d, e, f, g, h.
5. Distinguish between "devices" and "methods".
6. Make a list of devices usable in each of your subjects to motivate them. Make another list usable for illustration and explanation of topics in each of your subjects. Compare these lists with similar lists of four other teachers.
7. Each of you learn a story to tell to a group of real children, and tell it to a group of your class. Test your story out by the hints given in this chapter.
8. Should you provide on your program for a story-telling period? How conduct this period? How often would you have it?
9. In what subjects can you use the story-methods? Will little stories told by teacher or pupils in the regular class period of some lessons serve to vitalize the lesson? In what way?
10. To what extent can you use the experimental method in the elementary schools? In what subjects? How use it in the absence of a regular laboratory?
11. In what subjects is the discovery method proper? How can you use it in guiding the children in their seat work or home work? How can you combine it with the contest method? Illustrate how you would use this method in

- geography, in history, in hygiene, in civil government, in language, in arithmetic.
12. When can you make the discovery method become a true inductive method? What are its conditions? Illustrate with an actual case.
 13. Make a list of ten things in each of five subjects which you would be justified in telling children outright. Why not develop some of them inductively, or at least by the discovery method?
 14. List ten things in each of five subjects which are better taught by the development method. Why do you think so?
 15. Mention five processes in five different subjects which need to be actually *shown* children for effective teaching. Why would the "showing" method be better in each case (separately considered)?

CHAPTER IX

METHODS OF TEACHING—2

The recitation method. The word *recite* means to repeat, or report, or to say over again. The ordinary class period is generally known as the “recitation”. When we speak of the “recitation method”, we refer to the method in which the children do a great deal of reporting or repeating what they have learned in their texts. Of course, here we have a provision for *expression* which is necessary in education, but this kind of expression may be like the emptying of a barrel and leaving no effects behind that may be considered worth while. A parrot may repeat either Scripture or profanity. Some use of the recitation method is necessary, especially when the teacher desires to test the children as to how well they may have done their work assigned in a content subject. In a history lesson the teacher may ask a great many questions of the purely reproductive sort. This is the recitation method, and a necessity in such subjects as history, hygiene, geography, when the teacher desires to check up on private work. If the teacher stops with the mere *recitation* of the facts of the lesson, or even makes it the major part of the total class procedure, the children’s knowledge of the material recited will be short-lived. In *information lessons* a combination of the recitation and the discussion and other methods explained below usually makes for better class work.

The pre-requisite of the use of the recitation method

is the previous assignment of work to be done at home or at the seats of the children. Children may *recite* poems, number tables, history facts, spelling words. The method, when used alone, is a very poor method of teaching. While it cannot be dispensed with, it must be used for its permanent effectiveness in combination with other methods. In the use of the recitation methods alone, the chief motive for the children's work is merely to satisfy the teacher. No real thinking can be thus stimulated.

j. **The method of topical report.** This is a recitation method, but calls for the recitation of larger bits of material than in the regular recitation method. The teacher may call on the child to report on a certain topic. That topic may cover a paragraph or even half of the lesson. The pupils may report on topics which were assigned to individuals and not to the class as a whole. This is good. It makes every child reporting on individual topics a teacher, using the telling method. But, if the method of the topical report may result in the best effects, it must be supplemented by use of the *discussion* method. Real thinking and discussion should go on in class, resulting from those topical reports, or the chief educative effects are lost. "Thinking educates."

k. **The dramatic method.** Some one has said that whatever goes into the mind through the senses must come out through the muscles. Time and space are not available for the full and free discussion of this principle. But the word *dramatic* is derived from a Greek word *draein*, meaning *to do* or *to perform*. The dramatic method is employed, whenever the teacher has the children actually do the thing. It does not mean merely the doing of anything in obedience to instructions. Dramatization is recitation through action. It

is an endeavor to do the thing, as some one else or something else has done it, as represented in what has been read or studied or told. It has a useful purpose to serve in the schoolroom, especially in the lower grades. But not enough use of it has been made in the upper grades. How a court is conducted is best shown up in civil government, in addition to observing a case tried, by transforming the school room into a court scene, using all the pupils in some sort of relation to the case. How the President of the United States is elected is best taught by dividing your school into two parties, say, the Red Rose and White Rose parties, letting each hold a convention to nominate candidates for President and Vice-President from the school at large; nominating electors from each room; having a "campaign" at recess and letting the candidates make speeches; then in school time actually conducting the election in accordance with election methods. (Neither party should, however, be identified as "Democratic" or "Republican".) Appreciation of great pieces of literature in which action has a large part is induced with much greater certainty and in much higher degree, if the students may actually "play" it. A Sunday School teacher took his adolescent boys on a picnic one day over into the mountains a few miles from their church. They had just been studying the story of David and Saul. While there, they decided to dramatize the whole story of David and Saul and Jonathan there in the mountains, where they could find a cave. That Bible story took on a meaning to those boys that they had never seen in it before. Great historic scenes should be taught by the dramatic method,—scenes such as the signing of the Declaration of Independence, the adoption of the National Constitution, the giving of Magna Charta, the issuing of the Monroe Doctrine, the

signing of the more important treaties of peace, especially the Treaty closing the Great War. The more important pieces of action literature that come in the course in reading or literature may well be dramatized. Julius Caesar has a new and big meaning, after being dramatized, for those who dramatize it. So does the Pied Piper of Hamelin, and many others.

Many dramatizations may be made incidental to regular school work. Then, occasionally, it will make them have still more meaning, if they may be summed up, say, once a month, in an entertainment or concert, given before the parents. The teacher should use for dramatization the materials of the better and truly educative kind, both in school and for the regular school entertainments. It is a shame that so many of our school entertainments are filled with dramatizations and recitations of the "ragtime" sort. Such materials used become deëducational in effect.

There is also a certain kind of action in connection with education that is entirely proper, but not to be classified under the head of dramatization. The keeping of a school garden, the making of an aquarium, the practical work of manual arts and home economics, the demonstration work of agriculture, the engaging in the task of pig clubs, corn clubs, and tomato clubs, are proper parts of educational procedure under the head of *laboratory or experimental methods*, but not under *dramatic methods*. They are provisions for *expression* which properly carry out instruction.

1. The conversation method. Happy is that teacher, and successful, too, who knows how to have the children carry on in school a conversation in which the children all join and in which the subject of the conversation is the matter that the teacher wishes the children to learn. The teacher manages to hold the conversation,

without its becoming stilted, to the matter which she wishes the children to talk about. She does this to prevent wandering. The children feel free to talk at will. They are not scolded nor frowned down upon for saying the wrong thing. The teacher appears among them as a leader, but not as a dictator of the conversation. In history they talk about how people lived in pioneer days. They have read certain assignments in books in the school library in preparation for this recitation. The method becomes truly *socialized*. They talk about how life goes on on a cotton farm in the South, or in a mining town, or in a fishing town. They may talk about how the silk worm lives, or about how cloth is made, or what makes the train run, or what makes it rain; so on. This method used with smaller children may well be called the *conversation method*. The same method used with larger children, when more advanced logical reasoning is involved, when more difficult topics may thus be dealt with, may well be called the *discussion method*. Conversation is more of a treatment of life as it goes on. Discussion involves more exposition and argument.

The teacher may well converse with the children about many things, that are within their comprehension. Successful is that teacher who may walk about the school premises or sit down upon the school grounds, if immediately there come about her a great many children just to "talk with" her. A failure is that teacher from whom children freely scatter, when she appears near them. Many lessons of life, not found in books, are permanently planted in these incidental conversations. "Conversation" once had a meaning akin to "citizenship", or "fellowship". It is the method of *living with the children* for the time being.

m. **The discussion method.** This method differs from

the *conversation* method just discussed in that its use is that of more advanced students. It differs from the *development* method in being less guided by a teacher. In the development method we are assuming that certain content is already in the pupil's mind and that by proper questioning it can be brought out, a bit of knowledge of which the student, for the time being, is not conscious. But, as we saw, there are certain limitations to it, in that facts cannot be discovered by mere development. Facts come not from within one's mind, but from without. We cannot develop from the *within* of the mind that Columbus discovered America. We can *discuss* whether America should not have been named for him.

The *discussion* method is training to think well, if properly directed. Its function is to weigh and consider, to determine the importance of facts with reference to a certain purpose, to organize them in reference to their relation to a problem, to accept them or reject them on the basis of their worthwhileness. It gives opportunity to exercise the *critical attitude*, if *critical* be made to mean the acceptance of that which is good, as well as the rejection of that which is valueless. The formal debate, whether in literary society or in the classroom, is a use of the discussion method. The informal debate of the citizens' forum uses the discussion method. The reflection upon the truthfulness of statements in history, or upon the trueness to life of statements in literature, if expressed, is a use of the discussion.

It is sometimes hard to keep discussion from wandering, as in the case of the conversation. It is difficult to keep perspective. It works best, when those who participate are well prepared in the content of the matters under discussion. The main facts of the topic

should have been already learned. Then discussion may involve the telling or reporting of the facts, the expression of views as to their reasonableness, and even questions for further light. The result of it should be a very much better understanding and a very much more effective organization of the facts weighed, considered, evaluated in the discussion.

n. **The problem method.** This is a form of the discussion and development methods in which the students set out in their assignment of work or in the introduction to the recitation with a rather large problem as a guide to their study or discussion. It is their task to find the facts that will help in solving it, determine their bearing upon the problem, accept them as contributory, or reject them as useless, for their purpose. The problem may be given outright by the teacher, or it may be educed from the children's experience in that subject or in life outside. It may be needed to combine this method with the laboratory method, or the inductive method, or the discussion method, or others, or all of these together. The problem may be

- to learn how to write a letter, so that Santa Claus will surely answer it; or
- to determine whether Lincoln or Washington was the greater man; or
- to find out whether it pays people in town to keep chickens; or
- to determine whether United States should annex Mexico, in case Mexico should petition, as did Texas, for annexation; or
- to determine in what place in the room the waste basket should be placed; or
- to find out how to remember the multiplicative facts during the summer between the third and fourth grades at school; or
- to find out whether it paid Uncle Sam to purchase Alaska; or
- to find out whether the United States government is justified in outlawing the English sparrow; or
- to learn board measure so as to be able to make bird houses of proper dimensions about the schoolhouse; so on.

The values of the problem method are seen in that (1) it gives direction to discussion or conversation and prevents wandering; (2) it stimulates reflective thinking; (3) it becomes a source of motive for study; (4) it furnishes a basis for the organization of ideas; (5) it provides a standard of values in judging the worth of the facts presented or the truthfulness of statements made; (6) it secures attention of the pupils to the task at hand; (7) it economizes mental effort; (8) it causes children, in studying content subjects, to get the facts desired in large units.

Arithmetic has ever been a subject of great interest to children, because it is a "problem" subject. The author would like to enter a plea that the problem method be given a large place in history, geography and hygiene. Geography is a particularly good subject in which to employ the problem method. In using the problem method in geography the teacher should keep in mind that there are certain large facts that are desired to be learned in certain divisions of the subject of geography, and should see that the problem is worded or discussed in such way as to include them. For example, there are ten large facts that should have been learned in the study of a continent, ten large facts in the study of a country, eight large facts that should be learned in the study of a section. These are not indicated in this chapter. The reader will find them in the geography lesson plans in another part of this volume. In history, the problem used should be such as will call for the selection and organization of just those few large facts that ought to be learned in the particular setting in which the children are studying. In studying elementary United States history, if the children be using a text like "Makers of American History", a small biographical text, in which

one man is the subject of each chapter, a kind of perpetual problem may be: "As we read this chapter, we want to determine whether this man was *really a maker of American history*. If you find that he was, look for the three or four big things in his life that cause you to think that he was a maker of American history." As many texts in history are poorly written from the standpoint of organization, the headings of chapters and of topics being frequently poorly worded, it is sometimes good to have the children read the chapter with a view to improving the headings mentioned and to let them write out new chapter headings and new topic headings. One may think this to be a mere exercise in rhetoric, but he or she will be surprised at the success of this problem device in the children's incidental learning of the facts in history assigned for them to learn. After all, in a history lesson, it is not a multitude of small facts that children are to learn. They will forget them, just as you and I have forgotten them. Nature will not let us remember them. What is wanted is that the children shall learn the few large facts that really amount to something, determine their value and organize them into a coherent whole. The emotional effects resulting from such a teaching of history are tremendously more worthwhile than the intellectual value of a million small, unrelated facts of history. When possible, let there be introduced into geography or history the use of the problem. It may take the form of a debate, or a class problem, or an individual problem. If the problem be well used, the weighing of values, the unifying and organizing of ideas, and true reflective thinking will ensue as a matter of course.

o. The project method. In the natural setting of children's lives these children are constantly engaged in the execution of their own self-chosen projects. They

are building a doll house, or engaging in merchandising, or running a miniature factory, or farming, or building a set of houses. These tasks are self-appointed and self-chosen. No one else has told them to do these tasks. The children's whole activity is determined by the purpose which they have thus set up for themselves. Call it play, if you will. It is more serious than play. This is the project method in their everyday undirected life. It works so well there that it seems a great waste of opportunity not to bring something of it over into the school life of these same children.

In many agricultural high schools the project method is much used. It may involve the raising of an acre of corn, the raising of a pig, or the keeping of a cow. The boys choose their own projects and then are given the necessary directions for the successful doing of their projects. In home economics the project may be the making of certain garments which girls themselves will wear. It may be the making of a certain article of food that they themselves will eat or serve at dinner. In manual arts the project may be the making of a bird house, or a rabbit box, or a chicken coop. It may be the making of calendars which the children will use as Christmas gifts for their own mothers. In whatever subject it comes, there is *a whole-hearted purpose supplying the motive for the task.*

Much is now being said about the teaching by use of projects, and the teacher will do well to investigate its use. Miss Krackowizer has a splendid treatment of her own work with projects in her book, "Projects in the Primary Grades". Her treatment of projects constantly refers to them as *purposeful activities*. Play, constructive activities, social experience, nature experience, literature, and even the formal subjects are treated by her in their relation to purposeful activities.

p. **The contest method.** This method is employed as a means of motivation in some subjects. It is the appeal to the instinct of rivalry. It is used in the form of a spelling match to motivate the review of a series of spelling lessons. It is used in history or geography in the form of a debate as a motive for investigation, report, and discussion of certain facts in those subjects. It is used in the form of a race in the fundamentals of arithmetic to motivate the practice needed to automatize the use of the number combinations. It may be used in the case of individual pupils to stimulate *self-rivalry*. The pupil may take a specimen of his own writing, measure it by the handwriting scale that is on the wall, note his place on the scale, and then practice with a view to reaching a higher place on the scale by next week; or he may try to read or spell or work arithmetic better in order to reach a higher position on the scales of these subjects. He may try to avoid the use of certain bad uses of English in order to help his group of pupils win a larger number of stars on the language honor roll.

In the use of the contest method, the use of material prizes, valued in terms of money, should be avoided by the teacher. It is permissible for a parent to offer his child a prize of money value, in case the child may achieve a certain excellence; but the teacher should not do so. The only case in which the teacher may offer a prize of money value is in a contest which is voluntary, no one being *required* to enter it. Such are recitation or declamation contests. This should not be done in required exercises, as in spelling or writing. It is permissible for a teacher to offer prizes of immaterial value, provided the conditions of the contest be such that any pupil who may reach a certain standard may be entitled to this immaterial prize, which would be

worth a great deal to a child winning it, but of no value to one not winning it. Such are places on honor rolls for excellent work, the use of "Perfect Spelling" tickets for all those who spell all the words in a given lesson correctly, the awarding of promotion tickets to all who finish the work of their grade, the awarding of diplomas to those who may complete the prescribed course. A diploma or a promotion ticket is not of value to any one but the winner. The winner has reached a certain standard.

The best use of the contest method is that in which the student takes his own past as his competitor and tries to beat it and achieve heights not yet reached in excellence. The next is that of group competition, of one school against another school, one grade against another grade, one team against another team. Individual competition should not usually be resorted to. The Jesuits had a plan by which boys were grouped in pairs, called *rivals*, each trying to excel the other in school work, in manners, in morals, in every way. This plan was unlike that of the modern school which cultivates coöperation rather than personal rivalry.

q. The objective method. Whenever the teacher ceases to rely altogether upon words as a medium of teaching, and uses *real* things, bringing them into contact with the children's senses, the objective method is employed. The *objective method* may be inductive, experimental, showing, or otherwise related to other methods. The teacher may use the real thermometer with which to teach how to read temperature. She may use a silk worm in a real situation to teach how silk is made. She needs a real cotton stalk and a miniature cotton bale in teaching the growth and production of cotton; so on for other plants. It is helpful to have a real miniature motor in teaching how electricity moves

machinery. The use of real things in the several sciences has come to be recognized as of such importance that many colleges and universities will not give credit for the completion of natural science courses, unless the taking of the courses may have been accompanied by laboratory work.

In the teaching of geography, if samples of the matter studied about may be at hand, it makes the instruction very much more vivid and lasting. The same is true of history. Old styles of clothes, coins, watches, spinning wheels, looms, illustrative of former times, vivify and vitalize the instruction in large degree. A teacher in the third grade wished to teach her children how people lived in each of the foreign lands, in which there was a striking difference in mode of life. In studying about Japan, she had a child come in dressed in the Japanese mode. She had one to dress in Dutch costume when they were studying about Holland.

The next best thing, after objects, is the use of pictures, including, from every consideration, those pictures in the books. Many teachers just pass right over the pictures in their text-books, without using them at all for their teaching values and purposes. Let the children open their books and talk about the pictures. Let them bring to school pictures from magazines and the like by means of which the content of their lesson may be enriched. In addition to the value of pictures through appeal to the eye for purposes of attention, they also have a fact value. Some children cannot understand a thing till they may see either it or its picture. By reason of the physical picture the mental picture becomes clearer. Motion pictures are exceedingly valuable, when the content of the films is educative.

There is a danger, however, in objective teaching

which teachers can and should avoid. It is that the objects may become the whole thing and the purpose for which they are used entirely lost sight of by the children. If the use of objects becomes an end in itself, its purpose is defeated. In such case, the objective methods would become less effective than the use of purely verbal methods. Use the object, or the picture of an object, for what it is to teach; then get away from the thing to the meaning. After all, it is meaning that is sought.

r. Deductive, practice, and expressive methods. Even when the type is not primarily that of deduction, practice, or expression, the teacher may need as a part of her total procedure to use the methods of deduction, or practice, or expression. As the principles underlying these have been explained in Chapters II, III and IV, nothing further need be said of them here as subsidiary helps in a total procedure. Suffice it to say that we need to employ deductive methods whenever we come to pass judgment upon particular examples, or words, or problems, in the light of general truths previously learned. Practice must be provided whenever any processes are to be converted into habit. In every sort of exercise, expression must be provided for on the part of the children, or we get nowhere. Impression is lost, if there be no corresponding expression.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. What is the purpose of the recitation method?
2. To make the recitation method effective, what other methods should be used in combination?
3. Is mere recitation, involving no thinking, worth while? Why?
4. In what subjects are "topic" reports valuable? What other methods would you combine with reports? Why?
5. Take one lesson from each of three subjects and list proper topics for recitation. How could these topics be discussed and more thoroughly learned?
6. What is the essential value of dramatization in school exercises?
7. Make plans to dramatize the facts of three lessons (in separate subjects).
8. Distinguish conversation and discussion. In what subjects could you use discussion? Illustrate how you would provide for discussion, in each of three lessons (in separate subjects). What are the values of discussion? How preserve these values?
9. What is the problem method?
10. Formulate four problems, big enough to run through at least one recitation in each of the following subjects:

Geography;	Hygiene;
History;	Arithmetic;

A combination of two or more subjects.

11. Make a list of projects usable in your schoolroom. Consider each to determine whether you think that the children can *feel* the purpose of it. Compare your list with other lists similarly made. Exchange with their makers, so that all may have the benefit of all the projects.
12. What purposes are served by contest methods? What sorts of contests are permissible? In what subjects employable? Would you have rewards? Why?
13. Show how a pupil may take himself as a competitor for purposes of rapid progress in his school work.
14. What purposes are served by use of objects? What their limitations? Dangers?
15. Make a list of objects for each of your subjects that will really be illustrative and helpful in your teaching. Compare these with the lists made by five others in your class. After comparison, would you enlarge your list, or diminish it? Why?
16. Re-read the parts of Chapters II and IV which explain *deduction, practice and expression*.

CHAPTER X

METHODS OF TEACHING—3

A. Questioning.

The method of questions. There have been times, teachers, and subjects, in the combination of which it seemed that the whole teaching task was one only of quiz and univocal answer. That method takes advantage of almost none of the great principles of teaching, as used by the master teachers of the ages. As the use of questions is a necessity and a utility, it is our task here to suggest what may be considered *kinds of questions to be used*, and also *kinds of questions to be avoided*.

1. Kinds of questions to be used.

a. Large questions. Instead of asking a hundred questions which are of so little scope as to be answered in a single word, or phrase, or even a sentence, it is better to ask three or four questions of sufficient scope to insure summarizing, or organizing, or even reorganizing the lesson material. It is still better, if there may be just *one* question big enough to involve in its answer a complete organization of the whole lesson. The author refers to such questions as may appear as problems of study and recitation previously discussed under the *problem method*. This kind of questions does not preclude the use of smaller questions, if related and necessary to the consideration and development of the main question or questions.

b. Thought questions. The preceding paragraph

presupposed the use of *thought questions*, but did not exclude *fact questions*. The recitation method only would confine itself to the use of *fact questions*. The inductive, the deductive, the development, the discussion, the project, the problem methods, must also use *thought questions*.

c. **Questions by pupils.** The method of questions is faulty, if all of them are asked by the teacher. It is a symptom of success, if there be a great deal of asking of questions related to the purpose of the lesson by the pupils themselves. The teacher will do well to stimulate and encourage the asking of questions by the pupils.

d. **Written questions.** The author does not mean to imply that all good questions should be written, nor even a very large proportion of them. In making a lesson plan, it is frequently well worth the time and effort to write down the few large, rather pivotal questions, in order to get a careful wording of them. If a teacher in the midst of her class asks a main question and has to re-word it several times before it can be properly answered, that is a sure sign of inefficient teaching. So, occasionally the teacher will do well to test herself out in the matter of main questions, by actually writing them out in advance. This should certainly be done by the beginning teacher in her practice teaching, till she gets a certain mastery of good questioning. The teacher must not, however, get into the habit of using only written or printed questions; the teacher needs to look the pupil in the eye, as the question is asked.

e. **Questions assigned in advance.** If the teacher, in assigning a new lesson, will give a few large questions carefully worded, or even one, being sure that the children really get them or it, such a plan will usually insure a much better preparation of the lesson by the

pupils. The teacher may even write them on the board, or dictate them for the children to take down.

Weigle, in his little book, "The Pupil and the Teacher", mentions six kinds of questions, in terms of the purpose served by them: *Preparation questions*, to review previously acquired knowledge in the pupil's mind as a preparation for studying the newly assigned, or the about-to-be-taught material, and to make him feel the need for the new knowledge; *recitation questions*, to test a pupil's mastery of assigned material and to bring out essential facts; *development questions*; *review questions*; *examination questions*; *personal questions*, to make a direct appeal to a pupil's experiences and purposes.

The careful teacher, carefully making assignments of lessons, takes sufficient time to do it. She includes in the assignment sufficient large questions to guide the children's studying. This gives direction to thinking by the children. You can never teach children to think by letting their minds run wild, with no direction, stumbling upon the facts desired, and upon the uses of these facts, as the pupil might or might not. The "learned" person who knows nothing about teaching or learning, will exclaim, "Horrors! You are destroying the child's individuality, if you do such things as direct a child's thinking." Answer him by saying that you never destroy a child's individuality by conserving it. Not more than one child in a thousand can even achieve an individuality that is worth while in modern life, apart from the life of savages and barbarians, unless his curiosity be directed into worthy sources of knowledge by means of worthy problems assigned in advance, and unless his mental hunger be stimulated by questions in advance, pointing out the way into the rich intellectual pastures just ahead.

But, if you give good questions in advance, it will be because you have already studied the lesson, before you have ever assigned it, and because you know what the large things are that the children should get.

f. **Spreading questions over the whole class.** It is a great temptation to a teacher to let the questions fall most frequently among those who answer most quickly. It often happens that the questions fall immediately in front and a little to the right and left of the center of the room. Take note of this tendency, and keep yourself from so restricting your efficiency. The children in the rear, around the margins of the rooms, in the two rear corners of the room, are entitled to your questions, by answering which they give *expression* to that with which they have been *impressed* in your teaching. Give all a chance. In your daily preparation, frequently make a list of questions that you will ask the next day, also make a list of names which you will call next day. Be not unmindful of the need to scatter your questions over the entire class. It is not necessary in every class that every child be asked a question; nor is it necessary for those who are highly brilliant to be continually squelched in their attempts to talk. It does mean that every child has rights to the benefits of the recitation to the extent that any other child has them, and no teacher does well by neglecting a part of her class in her teaching.

2. Kinds of questions to be avoided.

a. **Only memory questions.** Unless these be substituted for, or very much supplemented by, questions that stimulate thinking, no good result is certain.

b. **"Yes" and "No" questions.** Questions that call for the answer "yes" or "no" should be avoided, unless they are to be followed up by *thought questions*. Very small use of them should be made, even then.

Instead of asking, "Does air contain oxygen?" ask, "What are the elements of air?" Let your question be so worded that thought, rather than guessing, may prompt the answer. Sometimes it may be necessary to ask such a question as here advised against, as transitory to another question. The other question may be the requiring the statement of cause. For example, one might ask, "Was Columbus successful in his search for a nearer way to India?" then, "Give reasons." It is a safe rule not to employ "yes" and "no" questions unless they be followed by other questions to complete the train of thought started.

c. **Too suggestive questions.** Some say that all suggestive questions should be avoided. As a matter of fact, however, that is impossible. A question that has no suggestion in it cannot be answered. In other words, the question must connect up with something in the pupil's mind, if it is to be answered. But the teacher must keep down the suggestion so that real mental activity must be caused for answer.

d. **Questions vague and of doubtful meaning.** This kind of questioning may be avoided, if occasionally the teacher will write her questions out. It is a waste of time and a dissipation of both pupils' and teacher's efforts to ask such questions as become for the children a mere guess as to what is meant.

e. **Questions given only to the bright pupils.** It may be easier to conduct the recitation in this way, but the teacher is not employed to teach only the bright pupils. Furthermore, "Those that are well need not a physician, but those that are sick," mentally as well as physically. A boy in Senior Class at high school one day called on the principal and said, "I know I am not a bright pupil, but I believe that I can graduate next June if the teacher will show me as much atten-

tion in my mathematics as he shows the few very bright pupils in the class. He calls on (naming the three brightest pupils in the room) every day. He does not call on me once in two weeks. At that rate, I shall not get through, I know." As a result the teacher was seen without giving the boy's complaint, and his questions began to be spread out over the class. The boy graduated.

It is very nice to ask questions that will always be answered quickly. There are usually in every class one or two pupils who come to school prepared to answer the questions asked. They "know the lesson." They need the help of a teacher little; if given but a little guidance, they will educate themselves. The others need much help. In the recitation neither the bright ones nor the slow ones should have a disproportionate part of attention shown them. In the study period and in private conferences, the slow ones will need much more help. The teacher is in the schoolroom to teach all the children admitted to that room. She is failing in her duty, if she teaches only those who need teaching least.

f. **Questions with the pupil's name prefixed.** Such are an invitation to all the rest to pay no attention to the recitation, till their names shall be called. If the question be asked and followed by a second's pause, before the pupil's name be called, every one is listening to see whether it is going to be his or her time. Ask the question; then call the name; but do not wait long enough to make the procedure tiresome or to waste time.

g. **Alternative questions.** This kind of question uses just double the number of words necessary. It is tiresome to the teacher and wastes the time of the pupils. She may say, "Is America on the East side of the Atlantic, or is it on the West side?" or "Did the

North win in the Civil War, or did the South win?" A better way to ask those questions is to say, "On which side of the Atlantic is America?" and so on. Once in a thousand, perhaps, an alternative question may be asked in abbreviated form, if it be followed up by a thought question.

h. Questions asked in the order in which pupils sit or stand. If this should be the regular way of questioning, only a few of the pupils would be giving attention to the work of the class. However, as a matter of variation of class procedure, once in a while the teacher may ask questions, or give out words to be spelled, in just the order in which the children come. This should be the exception; not the rule.

In scattering questions, the teacher needs to observe with care one precaution. This is to see that all pupils get a proper proportion of the questions. It is easy here to skip certain pupils, especially those sitting at the sides and in the rear, and give them no questions for some time.

i. Questions repeated. Ask each question once. If the pupil, through inattention, cannot answer, call on another. It encourages inattention to ask the same question several times. In giving out spelling words, give out each but once. The only exceptions to this should be when there was some noise that interfered with the proper hearing of the word or question. If the teacher has carefully worded the question at first, in the absence of such interference, there is no reason to repeat the questions.

j. Questions asked of only a few pupils. The teacher commits an error in not asking questions of all in the class. Every child may not be called on the same recitation. That would be impossible, anyway, in a large class. The wise teacher keeps note of just how

far she went last time with her questions. She will ask them so that others may have the benefit of them this time. Let the beginning teacher start in with a purpose of bringing all the children into the recitation sooner or later, and all, too, with as nearly equal frequency as possible. All the members of the class are there to be taught, and not merely the few who answer up most often.

k. Too many small questions. There should be in every recitation a few pivotal questions, questions of large scope, calling for the organization of rather large units of material. Many questions are often asked of so small import that it makes little difference whether they may be answered. They are asked, too, on a level plane, so that no emphasis is placed on the more important questions, and they are so treated as if all were equally important. Let the teacher study to select a few large questions and avoid asking a great multitude of little questions. The use of many small questions is an error that may be avoided with little difficulty.

The items listed below are not *kinds of questions*, but *practices* in connection with questions, which should also be avoided.

l. Repeating the answer. A very bad habit, on the part of many teachers, is to repeat the answers to questions. This is done either to make sure that all children hear the answer, or to word better the answer. The former purpose may be met by having children stand and face the class to recite. The second purpose may be accomplished by developing a better answer.

m. Affixing to statements small, purposeless questions. In this bad habit the teacher tells something, repeats an answer, and then attaches to the statement such little questions as "doesn't it?" "isn't it?"

“aren’t they?” “wasn’t he?” “weren’t they?” “will they not?” and many other such expressions. Evidently the teacher does not expect any pupil to answer such questions. Let the teacher take note and omit them from her teaching.

n. **Concert answers.** It is permissible to use a question calling for concert answers, provided the children all understand the question and the answer, and you wish to give them a little drill on this particular answer. Otherwise, avoid concert answers. In such cases be sure to have the right answers connected with the right questions in complete sentences.

o. **Finishing with a pupil at one question.** While it is not necessary to ask every pupil several questions, before you leave him, he should never feel that you are not likely to come back to him at any time. He must not feel that his work is over for that class by merely answering one question.

p. **Letting pupils get into the habit of not answering.** When assignments are made for home study, it is with the assumption that the work will be done. If the work be that which they *can do*, pupils should be held responsible for doing it. When a pupil fails first, it may be overlooked. If he fails again to answer, have a private, friendly talk with him, offering sympathetically to help him in any way, and actually helping him in whatever appears to be his difficulty. This will take care of the trouble in most cases. If this fail, take the matter up with the child’s parents. The teacher’s personal, individual attention to such cases will very frequently solve the problem. The teacher may also use the honor roll, with competition between groups or rows of pupils, placing a star on the roll for each row that has no missed questions that day, to see which row may win most stars that month. Nevertheless, the

teacher must study her own method to see that she does not let her pupils get into the habit of not answering the questions asked.

q. **Waiting too long, after asking a question, before naming the child to answer, or too long upon him to answer.** While the question should be asked, and then the child to answer should be named, it is an error to wait long before naming the child to answer. In a moment of tense expectancy it soon gets on the children's nerves for the teacher to wait long, and disorder sometimes results. Also, after you have given the question to a certain pupil, do not wait unreasonably long for him to reply. If he cannot answer promptly, pass the question to another. The bright pupils become impatient, if too much time be lost on those who are weak. Still, do not forget that your weak pupils will need more help from you than the bright ones; but it should not be given at the expense of the bright ones. In your study lessons, and in your private conferences, you will help your slow pupil a great deal, and you will do it kindly and sympathetically, too. In your recitation he must not consume too much time that belongs to others as well as to him.

B. Methods of Two Great Teachers. The two teachers referred to had methods to which it would be worth one's while to give much thought and attention. No attempt is made here to analyze in full their methods or to give in detail an exposition of them. It is sufficient here to call attention to a few of their prominent characteristics.

1. **Jesus.** In the Lowly Nazarene we have the greatest teacher who ever taught among men. Some teachers feel that they are making no headway in the teaching profession, unless they are teaching in a large school or

connected with a large school system. He thought it sufficient to take just twelve men, and give them a three-years' course; to use the twelve graduates to redeem humanity and transform human society. So the teacher in the small school may well not despise the day of small things. Out of the small school have come some of the world's great men and women. The methods of Jesus involved a small training class; personal touch (veritably *living with* the members of the class); the conversational, story and development methods. Jesus's class was twelve in number. Twelve is considered a maximum number for Sunday School. Much sloven work is done in public schools, because the teacher has to teach the multitudes of pupils, running from 40 to 100 pupils, instead of a few to whom much personal attention can be shown. It is true that Jesus taught the "multitudes", but the results of this teaching, which were of maximum importance to the world, were accomplished in his immediate small class, all of whose members were at their Master's feet every day for three years. Never in the history of the world in another case have such profound results been accomplished as shown in the changes wrought in the lives of his pupils and through them such changes for the better in the whole realm of human society. His pupils were not philosophers, but just average men. So he adapted his method of instruction to their ability to understand. When he wanted to teach them a profound truth, he used a story. When one asked him a question, Jesus used the development method and led the man to answer his own question. But every day and hour nearly, he was using the conversation method.

If you are seeking the best books ever written on methods of teaching, the author would point out to you the Four Gospels. There you have master methods

used by the Master Teacher of all the ages, given in the concrete. There you find that the first step in Jesus's method as a teacher was to be that which he would *teach*. Have you ever asked yourself whether you *are yourself* what you would teach? If you would teach language or writing, are you a master of language and can you write a decent hand? If you would teach mathematics, is the subject a part and parcel of you, or must you yet seek elsewhere? If you would teach morality, are you moral? If you would teach the elements of courtesy, politeness, honesty, honor; are you yourself courteous, polite, honest, honorable? If you would teach punctuality, do you show consideration for others so as not to waste one minute of their time in waiting for you by meeting promptly your engagements with them? If you would teach religion, are you religious? The first step in Jesus's master method was to *have* and to *be* that which he would teach. As lowly teachers ourselves we certainly take the first step, when we seek to get and to be that which we would teach. The first step, then, in Jesus's method is that of *personal integrity*.

The second fact in the Method of Jesus was in having *a small class*, living before them what he wished to teach, using the conversational method of communication, developing from their own experience answers to their questions, establishing the point of contact with them in every instance, living with them, only once lecturing or preaching to them, at all other times using the informal method of conversing and story-telling. This second fact of his method may be summed up in one phrase, namely, *living with the children*, which Pestalozzi and Froebel took from Jesus and urged modern teachers to use. It was a method of life that he would teach and that he would live. There was an

organizing principle in it, in his first public statement, "The kingdom of heaven is at hand", which became practical in "Whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them". In this small class was given a type of professional training like unto which no other teacher has ever given. Let us ponder the methods of Jesus as a teacher. Let us try to *be what we would teach*. Let us make much use of *the personal, individual touch*.

2. Socrates. Here was the teacher who stood next to Jesus as a teacher. There is a method which has been given his name and is called to this day the "Socratic Method." This teacher was living over four hundred years before Jesus was born in Bethlehem. Though Socrates knew nothing of the morality or of the religion of the Hebrews, the purity of his life and the high excellence of his teaching method make him stand high, even when measured by the Hebrew and Christian standards. In this case Socrates used some of the methods of Jesus. These were the small class and the development method. His class was usually accidental. He did not have a constant set of pupils whom he taught all the time. As he ran up with people in the street, in the market place, he engaged them in conversation and proceeded to teach them. However, there were a few devoted followers who made it a point to be present with him as often as possible. Of these the most conspicuous was Plato, who reported in great detail the conversations of Socrates with his pupils.

Socrates believed in the universality of knowledge. It was implicit in all men. If they were taught in the right way, the proper knowledge common to all men would be developed from *within* the individual's own mind. This is, of course, fallacious. Nevertheless, it is well to recognize that in teaching one starts, not with

a pupil's ignorance, but with his knowledge. While there is no knowledge that teachers may assume to be present in all pupils' minds, they will do well to assume that there is *something known* by them, before these children ever come into contact with the teacher. It is the teacher's task to explore the children's mind till she shall find what the children already knew. There she will begin to build this mental edifice which is her task. Here is the necessity to *live with the children*, play with them on the playgrounds, visit them in their homes, engage with them in their social pleasures, be a friend to them in all ways. There are for a teacher to know: the pupil; the subject-matter; the aims of education; the methods by which to achieve those aims in this pupil by means of this subject-matter. The most important of all these is knowledge of the pupil. One must know the pupil; know what he knows; even know what he feels. We start with a pupil as he is, and not as we might desire him to be; our change of him for the better will be a gradual one. Neither Socrates nor Jesus told their pupils anything that might be developed by personal questions from within the mental content of the questioner. In the case of both these great teachers the personal touch was a big part of their method. Their class was usually a small one.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. What are good kinds of questions? Poor kinds?
2. How can you get children in the class to ask questions? Is it worth while? Why?
3. A certain teacher re-words each question two or three times before she permits her children to answer. Criticize, showing effects, and giving methods of improvement.
4. One teacher calls on only the bright children in her room, another spends all her time with the slow ones. What are effects of procedure in each case? How correct the methods employed in each case?

5. Check yourself up to see how many times in a given recitation you repeat the questions of yourself or the answers of the pupils. What are the evil effects of this upon yourself? Upon your pupils? What are you going to do about it?
6. Why not have all answers given in concert?
7. What evils do you see in "letting children get into the habit of not answering at all?" How prevent, or correct, this, if it is already in your schoolroom?
8. Sit down to-night in your room and read through at one sitting, as you would a small book or newspaper, one of the four Gospels. Make a list of the methods employed by Jesus. What do you think of his methods?
9. Which methods did Socrates employ? Which listed in this book would Socrates never have used?

CHAPTER XI

THE RECITATION

1. **What it is.** The foregoing chapters in this text concern the teacher's preparation to teach a given lesson or set of lessons. The teacher last night sat down in her room and rapidly reviewed the subject-matter of her texts, decided upon the type of lesson to employ with each of her classes, the immediate aims to set up, what assignments to make, what results to expect from each class, and what methods to employ in order to achieve her lesson aims and to accomplish the results which she felt that she had a reasonable right to expect from her children, when she teaches them to-day. She comes now to to-day, and the recitations are going to take place. She faces her children. Opening exercises are over. A class has been called. What is the *recitation* going to be? What ought it to be, after so careful a previous daily preparation as referred to? To be sure, there will be certain steps in the *recitation*, not the *formal steps* of Herbart, necessarily, which would be too stilted in many cases. At any rate, there seem to be needed an *introduction* to the lesson, an *organization* of its content, a somewhat detailed outline of *methods* of procedure in parallel with the outline of subject-matter, a *summary* or *generalization* or *rehearsal* of the main points, and the *assignment* of the next lesson. As the assignment concerns the next lesson, there may be thought of, as concerned in the recitation, the other four elements above enumerated just before assignment.

2. **Its parts.**

a. **The introduction.** When a teacher comes to con-

duct the recitation, whatever the subject, she will do well to make such an introduction to the lesson material as will give the proper setting for the lesson, and revive the proper attitude of mind on the part of the pupils. She may in a way rehearse the main points of the assignment. She may use a few development questions to educe from the children's own minds facts to which the new material is to be related. She may tell an interesting story which will serve to focus their attention upon the material to be used in the recitation period. She may review them on the previous lesson, or related previous lessons. She will endeavor to ask those questions or say those things which will get their whole attention to the lesson at once. She may tell a funny story for recreation. She will endeavor to have them feel some degree of appreciation for the subject-matter of the recitation. When it is possible, the introduction will culminate in the formulation of a problem which will be a guide and center of the thinking of the recitation.

Many teachers make the mistake of coming right at once to the lesson material, instead of carefully preparing the way for it. Herbart called it *preparation*, meaning preparing the students' minds for the reception of the new lesson material. It is well to take enough time to make this preparation of the children's minds such that it will be easy for them to appropriate, appreciate, and assimilate what you may try to teach them.

b. Organization of subject-matter.

1) *Meaning.* "Organization is the grouping of details into points and these under still higher heads, according to their relationships", says McMurry in his *How to Study*. In the chapter on Organization in that great book, he shows that many teachers treat all facts as of equal value, resulting in pupils' inability to judge

values, making the single fact the unit of progress, and exhibiting the whole field of knowledge as a level plain. As facts vary in value and depend upon each other for their worth, they should be grouped *according to their relationships into points*. These points should be few and large, rather than many and small. Organization is considerably enhanced, when there may be a problem to answer which calls for the organization and use of the main facts involved in the lesson material. It has certain values in economizing the pupils' time, clarifying their ideas, enabling them to see the facts in perspective, making for accuracy in thinking, and also making for effective presentation of thought. Its main factors are a careful selection of the main thoughts, a careful wording of the main thoughts so as to show relationship to the larger unit, and the careful grouping of details and illustrations to support the main thoughts. We shall hereafter speak of those main thoughts, when worded, as points.

Organization concerns methods as well as subject-matter. The methods of procedure need have a proper relation to each other and to the purpose of the lesson as a whole. *Beginning teachers*, unless advised against it in advance, very often proceed as if every little fact must be learned as independent and worth while in itself. This is an error. Thoroughness does not mean *allness* or *thoroughness*, necessarily. It does mean the grouping of related facts so that the pupils will get them in large units. It does mean, too, that the unit of advance in subjects is not the small individual fact, but the group of large facts organized into points. If each small fact in history be treated independently, the children may remember these facts in the last lesson or two, but they will not remember them for a whole subject. Thoroughness means high quality, rather than

large quantity. It is better for the child to learn once and for all a dozen large facts in United States history than to learn ten thousand small, unrelated, individual, independent facts, having no related meaning to him.

2) *How organize facts.* The author will illustrate this in a few of the school subjects here theoretically. For concrete examples of organization, however, the reader is referred to Chapter XIV of this text, in which lesson plans are given. The two chief methods of organization are the logical and the psychological. Samples:

a) *Spelling.* Can a group of spelling words be organized? The author answers "yes", both logically and psychologically. *Logically*, the teacher may use such grouping as the following:

- (1) Words to be reviewed;
- (2) Words to be spelled orally;
- (3) Words to be spelled in writing;
- (4) Words having special difficulty, and needing to be much practiced;
- (5) Words to be used in sentences or in a story; and
- (6) Words to be looked up in the dictionary.

The foregoing is a *logical* organization of the words making up the teacher's spelling list for the day or the week. The following is the *psychological* arrangement of words, looking at it from the standpoint of the pupil:

- (1) Words that I shall need to-day in my arithmetic exercise;
- (2) Words that I shall need in my history test;
- (3) Words that I shall need in taking dictation;
- (4) Words that I shall need in writing my order for a bicycle; and so on.

When words or facts are grouped in accordance with the apparent inherent relationships running through the subject-matter, it may be spoken of as the logical organization. If these same facts be grouped about a problem of *needs*, near enough at hand to be *felt*, the

organization may be called the *psychological*. The reader's attention is called here to the fact that mere *arrangement* of facts or words or any other things is not necessarily organization. The elements arranged must be arranged in accordance *with their relationships* to each other and to some central idea running through them all.

b) *Writing*. Indeed, organization has place in a writing lesson. The teacher may organize it *logically*, thus:

- (1) Preparatory exercises;
 - (a) Explanations to be made in advance;
 - (b) The number of counts to guide the movements;
 - (c) The movements to be practiced;
- (2) The work of practice;
- (3) The time to be used in the exercise.

She may organize it *psychologically*, as follows, from standpoint of the pupil:

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| (1) How to sit; | In order to make a certain |
| (2) How to hold my pen; | point on the writing scale |
| (3) How to move my arm; | posted in the room; or in |
| (4) How fast to go; | order to prepare to write a |
| (5) What sort of pen to use,— | good hand for purpose of |
| | holding a position which |
| | has been offered me. |

Let it be noted that the organization is *psychological*, when the elements organized are grouped about a human problem related to the needs of the pupil, and considered from his standpoint. It is *logical* when the subject-matter is grouped in accordance with the inherent relationships of the subject-matter, taken somewhat independent of human relations. The teacher who works to have *psychologically* organized the subject-matter of school life endeavors to find children's problems and needs which will be satisfied in the selection, the discussion and the careful grouping according to relationships of the subject-matter of the school course.

c) *Arithmetic*. The subject-matter of arithmetic may be *psychologically* organized under such pupil *needs* as the following:

- (1) In order to make the Courtis scores for my grade,—
how often to practice the additive facts;
how long practice each time;
how shall I practice;
how much improvement am I making?
- (2) In the arithmetic game in the primary grades, in order to climb to the top of the ladder and get a golden apple, I must know the eighth line of the Multiplication Table.
- (3) In order to know how much lumber I must buy to make my chicken house, I must learn how to work Board Measure.

By wisely guiding the children, so as to lead up to a *pupil* need, which you recognize, you will frequently find that the children will make their own assignments for next time. One day a teacher was conducting a demonstration lesson in the fourth grade. The subject-matter was the examples of the Courtis Tests in multiplication. Two of the children went above the score for that grade; four of them just made the score, and the majority of them made a score considerably below the standard score for their grade. After talking about the source of their most frequent errors, they were asked on what they thought they should concentrate next. With one voice they responded, "We must work on the eighth line of the Multiplication Table". They said that they wanted to do this, and requested that it should be their next assignment. In this instance the organization of their number work became at once that which would supply their own immediately felt number needs. This was truly a psychological selection and organization of number work.

The teacher may organize the arithmetic work *logically* as follows:

- (1) Examples needed to illustrate the principle explained;
- (2) Examples for the children to work at their seats;
- (3) Examples to work at board;
- (4) Examples to be assigned to be worked out and handed in next day.

The foregoing is a logical organization for the children. However, it may be the psychological organization for the teacher, as she may *need* to use the arithmetic materials in just this arrangement in order to teach a certain arithmetical process. But the psychological organization from the pupils' point of view is needed to enrich, vitalize and energize arithmetic work.

d) *History*. History is organized logically when its chapters, or topics, or divisions are divided and subdivided, in accordance with their relationships, but with reference to the subject itself. It may be said of history, as of other subjects, that it is better that the facts be carefully organized logically, than not to be organized at all. When the element of pupil need may be introduced, it makes possible the very much-to-be-desired psychological organization. The teacher may enhance the organization of history by giving a large problem for the lesson as a whole, and then three or four subsidiary questions, whose answers will sum up the content of the lesson used. The teacher will do well to write such questions on the board as a guide to the pupils' study. In the recitation, she will also do well to write the points of the lesson on the board in their organized form, showing their relation to each other. The children will grasp and appreciate the whole lesson in its organized form better if they may *see* it so outlined, as it is developed, than if they merely hear it discussed.

A pupil comes to organize *psychologically* history material in such immediate needs as follows:

- (1) To prepare for my debate, what history facts shall I select, and in what order shall I arrange them?
- (2) To prepare my graduation essay on an historical topic, what facts shall I include and what must be their arrangement?
- (3) I am to report to class the story of the invention of the cotton gin. What points shall I make and in what order?

In every such case there is a pupil task that is more or less individual and personal, but its purpose is social. The pupil feels the need for the material to be used because of a purpose to be accomplished.

e) *Geography*. In former teaching of this subject, it was treated as an encyclopedia, and little attempt was made to organize it either logically or psychologically. It is a subject easy to organize by either plan. As a matter of fact, the same topics or points might be made in both plans but the mode of considering them would be quite different. Logically, the teacher might say, "In our study of the Middle Atlantic States there are eight things that we want to learn: (1) The names and capitals; (2) the size (in area and people); (3) the location; (4) the drainage; (5) the surface and soils; (6) the climate; (7) the industries and occupations; (8) the special features." The children might learn these eight large facts of this section and get about what they ought to get in such a study. But, if the teacher may *psychologize* the same lesson by some such process as the following, the meaning to the children will be of an entirely different sort and degree: "Children, we come now to study one of the very great sections of the United States. Do you know that in this section are more people than in any other of our sections; more large cities—one city being so large that every fifteenth person in the whole United States lives in that city; more publishing here than in any other section; more occupations. Here is a section so great that I cannot begin to tell you the elements of its great-

ness. Here are eight points in the study of a section: Names and capital; size (in area and people); location; drainage; surface and soils; climate; industries and occupations; special features. You will want to learn the names and capitals of the states in this great section, as a starting point. But as to the other seven points, try to find out the facts about those and determine three things: (1) Do any of them have anything to do with making the Middle Atlantic States such a great section, in which so many people live; (2) if so, which; (3) in what ways do these facts cause this section to be such a great section of the United States?" Thus they have a problem that is interesting, appealing to intellectual curiosity, necessitating the use of judgment, the weighing of values, the selection and organization of facts into a large unit. While they are thinking on the problem set forth, they are incidentally and unconsciously memorizing what the teacher would have them learn.

Without going through the whole list of school subjects, it is probable that enough has been said to enable the reader to see the full meaning of organization and also the difference between the *logical* and the *psychological* organization. In classes it might be well for the readers to carry this study on to include every subject in both the elementary school and the high school.

3) *How to number the points of one's organization of both subject-matter and methods.* In using a word or a phrase, or even a sentence, to give title to one's point, this is a matter of some useful concern. If mere words or phrases are used, the sub-topics and sub-sub-topics should go slightly to the right in arrangement with reference to the super-headings. In numbering the points, sub-points, and sub-sub-points, it may be noted that Roman numerals are ordinarily used to

number large divisions, as chapters. If such a large division have two rather large parts, or even three, they may be numbered by the use of capitals A, B, C. Except to denote large divisions of chapters, the capital letters are not used. Within a chapter the Arabic numerals are used to number points, when numbered at all. Subdivisions of points are numbered with small letters of the alphabet. Smaller subdivisions than these are denoted by means of Arabic numerals with half-parenthesis. Still smaller subdivisions are denoted by means of small letters with half-parenthesis and so on. The following represents a proper use of these numerals and letters to show relationships among divisions of subject-matter:

Chapter III	or,	Chapter III
1.	A.	
2.	1.	
	2.	
a.	a.	
b.	b.	
c.	c.	
	d.	
1)	1)	
2)	2)	
	a)	
a)	b)	
b)	(1)	
c)	(2)	
	(a)	
(1)	(b)	
(2)	B.	
	1.	
(a)	2.	
(b)	3.	
	a.	
3.	b.	

4) *Careful organization of subject-matter as a teaching excellence.* If a teacher may add the excellence that ties all her work together in a coherent whole, she must give attention to the matter of organizing the subject-matter of the courses given. As a large part of this, the teacher is to teach the children how to organize for themselves the subject-matter of the subjects which they study. To organize the content of the subjects which one studies means to group the details of each subject into points and to group these points into still higher heads till the whole subject has been covered, *according to the relationship of the parts in their bearing upon the central idea of the subject.* A "point" here means simply a group of facts. There are a few big points in each subject that need to be got by the student, rather than the multitude of little facts with which the subject is filled. The teacher must learn how to select the really big ideas of the subject, and then to teach the children how to select for themselves other big points in other subjects. In geography there are, in the study of a whole continent, only ten points that one need learn; in the study of a section, as New England, there are probably not more than nine points that need to be learned. In the study of any one of the "Decisive Battles of the World," there may be not more than five points which one need learn. In the study of a process in arithmetic there is probably one big point only that needs to be sought. And so on. Let the teacher, in her daily preparation, study how to select the few big points, in reference to the central idea or problem of the topic studied. Let her study how to group these so as to show *relationships* among the parts. Let her use this in her daily teaching, and let her teach the children how to use it. It is tremendously more important that a child may get a few "big ideas," as Dr.

Charles A. McMurry calls them, than that he may get a million separate, independent, unrelated, little facts. Let the children have practice in selecting the few big facts that are worth learning in a topic, with the facts that support them properly grouped to show *relationship*.

In information lessons, or content lessons, the teacher should make much use of the blackboard for the purpose of outlining, with the children's help, in organized form, the material of the lesson, so that they may see it all as a unit instead of seeing it as a wide sea of facts all on a level. The topical method of recitation is in place here, provided that there be a large place for discussion by the pupils, to stimulate their use of, judgment of, and reflection upon, the facts presented. Such recitations should be closed with a statement of the generalization reached, or with a summary of the points made. The conclusion should sum up and link together the large facts of the lesson material.

c. The method of procedure, outlined and detailed.

In the analysis of the lesson as made by the teacher previous to teaching it, it is well to determine just the steps to be taken, the things to be done. Examples of these will be given in concrete form under the head of "Lesson Plans", in Chapter XIV of this volume. It is worth while for the teacher who is making a careful analysis of the lesson and preparation to teach it, after considering the type of lesson involved, the aims to be achieved, the results to be expected, *to decide in advance just what she is going to do from the time that she takes charge of the class, till she shall dismiss it*. In practice-teaching it is well to write it out. In beginning teaching, in general, whether the teacher shall write it out or not, it is well to take a little time and decide just how she is going to teach *this* lesson to these children.

The method of procedure should also be outlined and detailed into points in parallel to the points of subject-matter. The subject-matter is placed on the left side of the page and the methods outlined on the right side of the page. Corresponding points of both subject-matter and methods should be placed even with each other in the plan. The large, pivotal questions should be written under the head of "Method of Procedure". The small, subsidiary, contributory questions, which depend for their use upon the successful development of the main topic, need not be written. It should not be necessary to go into great detail as to the methods to be employed in connection with each point of subject-matter or as to questions to be asked, beyond the mere matter of the large, pivotal questions.

Young teachers, in preparing lesson plans, frequently have trouble in distinguishing subject-matter and method. They will sometimes put points of subject-matter under *method* and *vice versa*. Subject-matter is what you teach; method is how you teach it.

d. **Generalization, summary, or rehearsal.** When a teacher has finished for a given recitation, whether the lesson has been finished or only a small part of it done, some sort of synthesis ought to be made. In an inductive lesson, it may be the wording of the generalization of rule. In a deductive lesson, it may be the re-wording or rehearsing of the rule. In a practice lesson it may be the generalization of any feeling that results from the practice, as to the need for further practice. In an expository lesson it may be the generalization of the principle explained, or the rehearsal of it. In an appreciation lesson, it may be the naming of the parts enjoyed most, and the reasons for enjoying them. In an information lesson it may be the rehearsal of the summary that has been in the process of making during the

whole recitation procedure. If a lesson has not been finished in one recitation, it should be summed up in some way as far as you may have gone. At the conclusion of the lesson, whether it may have continued just one day or several days, it should be summed up in some way as an organized unit. Generalization, summaries, definitions, rules, should all come into formulation, but their place is at the end of a process. They are needed as ties that will bind together the materials of thinking. If your procedure is inductive, the generalization, which appears to come at the end of the recitation, has, in reality, been going on all through the recitation. At the end it is stated as a rule, or as the answer to the problem. It is a great mistake for a teacher not to conserve her teaching by means of this synthesis at the close of the recitation.

3. Summary: In general, the recitation is that situation in which children of a given class meet as a group with their teacher for the following purposes:

a. To be tested as to the satisfactoriness of their work in preparation for this period;

b. To have the benefit of the *friendly, constructive* criticism of one another and of the teacher in the matter of the work of each in the recitation period;

c. To benefit from the ideas of other children and of the teacher.

d. To supplement each other's learning;

e. To have errors and misconceptions corrected and difficulties incurred in study cleared up;

f. To have opportunity, under kindly criticism, for expression and practice;

g. To weigh, consider, discuss and reach well-supported conclusions about the problems of study involved in the lesson material.

The work of a recitation needs to be carefully intro-

duced. It is an error for a teacher to come at once to the lesson material, instead of giving carefully its setting and thus inducing an attitude of mind on the part of the children favorable to the recitation work. The subject-matter needs to be carefully organized in the children's own minds. The method of procedure needs to be outlined with care. The teacher needs to determine with care how she shall wish the lesson material summarized.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. What is the recitation? Its work?
2. What are the purposes of the recitation?
3. Let individual members of the class take each one lesson in the following subjects and write out a proper introduction to the recitation of it, making the division so that all the subjects shall be thus covered for the class. (Take a *real* lesson from a *real* text-book)
 - a. Spelling
 - b. Reading
 - c. Arithmetic
 - d. Writing
 - e. History
 - f. Geography
 - g. Hygiene
 - h. Drawing
 - i. Language
4. Organize logically the subject-matter of the lesson which you have introduced, carefully numbering your points and sub-points; how would a psychological organization differ from the logical?
5. What methods do you think ought to be most prominent in this lesson? Why? (See Chapters VIII, IX, X.)
6. How should the lesson be summarized?

CHAPTER XII

TEACHING EXCELLENCES TO ACHIEVE

It is certainly worth while for young inexperienced teachers who are just beginning to teach to be advised in advance just what errors should be avoided. Many failures as teachers come from doing some little thing, which, if avoided, would have turned failure into success. The author, however, is just as convinced that beginning teachers should be warned of a few excellences in instruction, which may well be sought from the beginning to achieve. *Professional training for teachers is the acquisition by them of the successful experiences of successful teachers.* If this definition be true, it behooves those who would direct the *beginning teaching* of young people to advise them carefully as to what excellences are worth seeking to achieve. At the same time, it is not well that they be left to themselves to fall into the thousand pitfalls into which others have previously fallen. These *beginning teachers* should be advised as to what excellences are worth while for achievement and how to achieve them; they should be advised of the errors to avoid and how to avoid them. If the state is to profit by its own experience, the best experiences of the state's successful teachers must be made available for those who are about to begin as teachers. *Professional training of teachers*, then, as an active policy of the state, *is the transmission of the experiences of successful teachers to those who aspire to serve the State in the capacity of teachers.*

The following are a few of the *excellences* that seem to the author, in his observation and direction of beginning teachers, to be worth while for achievement :

1. **Careful daily preparation.** It may be that you have passed the teacher's examination, or graduated at a teacher-training school, or hold a degree from a teachers' college or university. It may be that you have had very extensive and intensive academic courses. You may regard yourself as much of a scholar. No person ever gets beyond the need for daily preparation of the lesson to be taught. You should certainly study thoroughly each lesson the night before it is to be taught. It would be well if it could be studied two nights ahead, so you could be very familiar with it when you come to assign it to the children for home study, if it calls for home study. The better the teacher knows the particular lesson, the better it can be assigned, and the better it can be taught. Without this daily refreshing that comes from a study of the lesson to be taught, one gets rapidly into a rut and teaching becomes a bore, rather than a pleasure. A teacher had occasion to use for eight years a text-book of algebra by a famous American writer of mathematical text-books. He made it a point to study the daily lessons the last year he used it as faithfully as when he began to use it. To him this book seemed as a constant friend, and the re-study of it year after year, and day by day, made it possible to teach the subject with enthusiasm and inspiration.

In a teachers' meeting one day a superintendent called upon his teachers to report as to the amount and the kind of daily preparation they made. One first-grade teacher reported that she put in three full hours every day in preparation for her next day's work. She described her method of preparation. This was an excellent teacher and her reputation had travelled far

from her own community. But, as she described her daily preparation, another teacher who sat near her said, aloud, "I do not know for the life of me what you can find to do after the first twenty minutes." In colleges and universities, professors are not considered as having done their duty in daily preparation unless they have studied fully two hours each lesson which they are to teach.

Notwithstanding the belief of many teachers that to study while they are conducting a school is a reflection on them, some of them even depend upon borrowing books from the children with which to conduct the recitations; notwithstanding the belief on the part of many parents that a teacher who does daily study in preparation for her classes is not qualified to teach—the author declares to his young readers that, if one is going to measure up to the responsibilities of the position of teacher, there must every day be a revival of learning in that teacher's experience. If one would teach with fervor and enthusiasm, he must every day drink deep in the fountain of knowledge. The minister who would go into his pulpit Sunday after Sunday, without previous preparation, would soon be without a congregation. The teacher who fails to make this daily preparation will soon have to seek another school. The teacher who does make a thorough preparation day after day will be in demand as a teacher for positions of increasing importance.

It is a law of human psychology—sometimes called the Law of Disuse—that what we have learned and have had no occasion to use comes gradually to be forgotten. We may forget slowly, but none the less surely. We need daily study of what we shall teach as a review of what we formerly knew. We need it, too, as a means of organizing the methods that we shall use to-morrow.

It is in the quietude of your own room that your best thoughts come to you and shape themselves for presentation to the children and for weaving into the very fiber of their beings. It pays to make this daily preparation. It pays both personally and professionally. It enlarges one's own self. It broadens one's vision of his or her own work. It increases one's own self-respect. It makes it possible for one to look the world in the face—the world of children—with a clear conscience. It makes possible the entering into the spiritual side of one's work. On the selfish side, it increases the probability that the report will get out into the community that the school has one of the best teachers it ever had. The children will soon be saying that their teacher "knows more than the book does." It is this slow, constant, consistent, persistent daily preparation for the tasks of life that results in a character that is stable and dependable.

"Heights by great men, reached and kept,
Were not attained by sudden flight;
But they, while their companions slept,
Were toiling upward through the night."

2. Being sure of your facts. Daily preparation just described is an opportunity to achieve this excellence of being sure of your facts which you are to teach. A little boy in the elementary arithmetic class heard his teacher, who was having a lesson in fractions, ask, "If your mother had four potatoes and wished to divide them among five children, what would she do?" Quickly as a thought this little boy raised his hand and said, "Mash 'em." The teacher must have *mashed* all the difficulties as to facts and processes, before facing the class. The author has seen some embarrassing situations when the teacher was not sure of the facts. Sometimes it resulted in a dispute between the teacher

and the pupils as to what was right. Such is pitiable, indeed. Let the teacher be sure, in advance, how to pronounce all the words that will come up in to-morrow's lessons; how to work all the problems in arithmetic or algebra; what dates and places will come up in history; where the places are in geography. When the teacher speaks, it should be as one who has authority, as one who knows. How can one teach that which he or she does not know? The author saw a teacher recently, who made daily preparation, teaching a lesson in geography. The topic was South America. She asked a pupil to tell her about the climate. The pupil was slow to answer, and she asked, "Well, how is it, the farther you go south?" When the pupil said, "It is hotter," she then asked whether it was hotter in the southern part of South America than in the northern part, and left the impression that South America has a very much hotter climate than North America, and a very much hotter one in the southern part of South America than in the northern part. Learn the facts of the lessons which you teach. Use pronouncing vocabularies and other devices for checking up your pronunciations. If a pupil ever calls attention to a possible error in your facts or processes or pronunciations, do not scold him for impertinence, but thank him and immediately have him help you look it up to be sure. Utilize any source of knowledge. If you would teach as an authority, you must not often be mistaken in your facts. *Try to be independent of your book.* If you should lose your book on your way to school, and if every child failed to bring his books to school, could you go on and conduct the classes anyway? If so, there is a master teacher in you. The author has seen teachers who had to look in the book to read the questions printed there, and then would have to turn back a leaf

or two to find out whether the children answered the questions correctly. This is a travesty upon teaching. If it is necessary to glance at the text-book for direction, it should not be because of the teacher's inability to proceed.

3. Continued growth in knowledge. There was a few years ago a young man who did not have in his community the opportunities of a high school education. He was too poor to go off to high school, but he was ambitious. So, in the privacy of his country home, studying alone, getting an opportunity to go to high school altogether only six months, he covered mostly by himself the requirements for entrance to the State university so as to be able to pass the entrance examinations. Although he lacked four years under good high school teachers, he met successfully the entrance tests in two years' time, almost by his own efforts. After he had four years later graduated with honors, he became the principal of a small high school and taught many of those subjects in which he had never had a teacher. One would naturally expect from him failure as a teacher of those subjects. The work involved Latin, Greek, history, literature, mathematics, science, all of which were of high school grade. But his constant everyday preparation for his classes, and his practice of studying broadly these and related subjects, caused him to teach with such enthusiasm and skill from the very first of his career that he rapidly rose in the teaching profession and is a recognized educational leader to-day.

Let no *beginning teacher* be satisfied with past scholastic achievements. (1) By daily preparation one will grow in depth of mastery of the subject-matter that is to be taught. (2) By reading other books on the same subjects one gets comprehensiveness of mastery

of these same subjects. (3) By reading regularly those books that the best minds of the race have esteemed worth while, one gets a mastery of his own mental processes and assimilates the best experiences of those who have become esteemed as masters of life. The teacher who seeks a big future and a successful life must do more than read the newspapers for knowledge. She will read current literature in a few of the best magazines. She will read some books of literature, whose authors the world recognizes as masters. She will read some good books of science, so that she may be correctly adjusted to the life of today. There are so many lines of study which one may profitably pursue, and in which she would find an ever enlarging life that one dare not try to enumerate them. The Great Teacher "increased in wisdom." Can we afford not to try to do likewise? Children learn best when they are in association with sympathetic, but *learning*, teachers. Keep your mind ever open to impressions from sources essentially trustworthy. Continue to grow in knowledge, which Bacon has declared to be power itself.

4. Careful assignments. Here is an excellence, which, when achieved, will conserve the intellectual energies of your children. You will do well here to turn back and re-read Chapter V of this volume. It is the mark of a poor teacher merely to say, "Get the next six pages," or "Work the next ten examples," or "Take the next line in spelling," or "Read the next chapter." It shows at once the teacher who did not study the lesson to teach it. It betrays the teacher with poor methods of teaching. The assignment holds a very big place in teaching technique. The master teacher introduces the assignment in such a way as to get the attention of the pupils, enlist their interest, cause them to feel the worthwhileness of the assignment and to de-

velop an attitude favorable to undertaking it. The master teacher makes the assignment so definite both in the text-book and out of it that the pupils have no doubt as to what they are to do. He or she clears up difficulties that would cause needless waste of the children's time. He or she even teaches the children how to study the lesson assigned. Occasionally he or she organizes his lesson under a big problem. Would you like to be a master teacher? The master teacher is worthy of imitation by his pupils in the matter of that which he teaches.

5. Establishing purposefulness in school work. Millions of children in American schools see little purpose in much of that which they study other than that it satisfies the teacher. They feel little value in that which they do in school. By reason of the fact that they are living in that age of their lives when they are expected to be obedient to authority without question, so most children do the work which they understand their teacher wishes done. There are, however, some teachers who so identify the work of the school room with the life of the children that the children learn easily and enjoyably. Their school work is so tied up with their own interests that they master the material which the teacher would teach and they want some more of it. What they do in school is to them worth while. The purpose of it is not difficult to see. Have you read in Quick's *The Brown Mouse* how Jim Irwin established purposefulness in the lives of all who came to his school? You will not come to it at once. Ideals are not achieved suddenly. Work toward the end that every child may feel that what he is doing in school is worth while to him now, and will be even more worth while in the future.

6. The use of supplementary material. It is not sufficient that we teach only that which our text-books

contain. They are at best only books of texts. The subjects may be enriched tremendously by the use of the vast ocean of material all about us. The following are some of the materials available for us:

a. **Illustrations.** This word means literally that which "lights up" the things which we would see with our mental eye. Illustrations, then, must throw light on the thing illustrated. The weakness at once apparent in the work of many beginning teachers is the lack of sufficient illustrative material. They have too few examples with which to make vital the principles in arithmetic which they are trying to teach. They have too few sentences in language to illustrate the use which they are now teaching. They have too few pictures of the places or the processes which they are describing. They even do not use the pictures in their texts of history, geography, hygiene, etc. They do not draw maps and other such things on the board to make the thing taught as concrete as possible. They make no use of maps, diagrams, models, sketches, or outlines. They do not have the children make things themselves that would illustrate. To be sure, the device used, if they would illustrate, must be familiar, and must really illustrate and not confuse. Good illustrations "catch the attention . . . quicken the imagination . . . kindle the emotions . . . aid reasoning . . . and assist memory." Let the teacher be on the search for good illustrations to use in teaching.

b. **Maps, globes, pictures.** The author cannot understand how teachers may be content to try to teach by purely verbal methods. Real objects bring the teacher and pupils face to face with the real situation taught about. To be sure, all things need not be taught by objective methods for all children. The next best things are some sort of representation of what we are teach-

ing. The teacher must seek these supplementary materials that will appeal to the eye.

c. **Motion pictures.** This institution, capable of unlimited educational possibilities, has become commercialized and has often been transformed into an agency of deëducation. It is yet possible, however, for the school and the church to install a motion picture machine and get films that are truly educational. This makes available for the children a means of education that counts rapidly.

d. **Other books.** Let us not be content to use only the text-book, which has been placed in our hands by the School Board which adopted it. Let us use others to enrich the main text-books. Geographical readers, books of history stories, other readers, even other than the main text-books serve to vitalize the materials collected in the texts in use. Such vitality is needed.

e. **Questions on the circumstances, answered from the pupils' imagination.** Once, just before Christmas, a teacher was telling a group of six-year-old children the story of the birth of Jesus and of how the shepherds went into the town "to see this thing which was come to pass." He asked many questions on the circumstances within the understanding of these small children. One of them was, "What do you suppose the shepherds did with their sheep while they went to town?" At once one little boy spoke out, "Left 'em with the dogs." Reflective questions are in place in any class, whether small or large, if the regular material is within the range of comprehension of the children.

f. **Life itself.** While the children are studying in arithmetic the topic of interest, why not have them go to the bank and find out just how the banker computes his interest? While they are spelling, may we have

them learn to spell the real words which they will use in writing to their grandmother, or in their written report, or in their contribution to the school paper? While they are studying history, how would it do to take the children over to an old battle ground near by? In teaching the forms of land in geography, take the children down to the stream and let them see all the forms of land in miniature. In teaching hygiene, let what they are learning commence to be practiced in the school life. In having a drawing lesson, let them occasionally draw something which they can use on a cover of a booklet which they are making, or which is otherwise useful. This field is limitless.

g. Sand tables, laboratory apparatus. Next to life itself we may with sand tables and other apparatus of the laboratory have a representation of the real life. For teachers in the elementary school, especially in the primary grades, there are many things that can be represented on the sand table, as deserts, snow fields, forests, seas, houses, travellers, life. The work of the laboratory in high school has become so important that many colleges will allow no credit for work done in the sciences unless such work has been accompanied by laboratory exercises. Here the supplementary material has become as important as the text itself. Many business colleges organize their students into real companies, and proceed to carry on the businesses of shipping, buying, selling, banking, making the situations in which they work so lifelike that, when the students graduate, they feel entirely at home in the business which they enter. Make large use of supplementary material.

7. Ownership of text-books. Many a teacher in American schools to-day does not yet own the text-books in the subjects which she teaches. The author has seen

many of them actually borrow books from the pupils with which to conduct a recitation. This is wrong. The teacher needed the books last night in her room for two hours from 7:30 to 9:30 to use in the preparation for the lessons of today. She needs her own books to-day in conducting the recitations, so that she may have the benefit of the notes that she has jotted down in them, as she studied for the lessons of to-day. She should be ashamed to ask the pupils to furnish her day by day the tools with which she is to work. The author here insists that every *beginning teacher* should begin her task in the right way and in the right spirit by purchasing at the beginning one copy of each book which she will need in her classes. If she has just finished school and has no money with which to purchase these books, let her borrow of a friend the few dollars needed for this purpose. The money can be repaid; but no one can become a successful teacher without books of his or her own.

8. Independence of text-books. The teacher who has to keep looking into the text book to see what questions to ask, or to see whether the pupils have answered the questions correctly, is a slave and a weakling. The children like a teacher who can teach "as one having authority." This ability is one big step toward successful discipline. Learn the facts of the subjects, and then look your children squarely in the eyes to teach them. This excellence is listed because it is worthy of separate mention, even though the topic was largely covered under "Being sure of your facts" in this chapter.

9. Proper use of books. Books are, after all, mere outlines of fields of knowledge. They were not written to be memorized in their verbal arrangement. The "written word" has always been a master to those of

limited experience. This should not be so. Books were written to conserve the valuable experience of mankind, and to make it available to those who seek it. The content of books should be as much a stimulus to reflection, discussion and conclusion as the conduct of our nextdoor neighbors. This is true of text-books as of those casually read, and should be even more so, in view of the assumption that books, selected by authorized boards of selection to be used as text-books, are worthy of careful use. Then let your children study the books, talk about them, discuss what they contain, draw conclusions, review them, withdraw them, study anew, make new conclusions. Books are good, not simply in the *impressions* which they make upon us, but in the *expressions* which they evoke from us. Use not merely the reading of books, but the pictures, the graphs, the reference tables, as well. Teach the children to be masters of their books, rather than to let their books become masters of them. Teach the children to make the acquaintance of the authors in their imagination and to regard their books as constant friends, to be kept, visited and consulted, even through vacation time.

The books of the room library (and there should be a small library in every school room, containing just the books of just the difficulty and of just the content suitable to that room) should furnish supplementary materials for regular lessons. This is true of history, geography and literature to a large degree. The content of the books of good literature is available as material for the "Story Hour," which is to be provided in every good school schedule of classes. Individual books of special appeal may be laid on the teacher's desk, to be loaned to pupils who finish preparing their lessons ahead of time. Children are to learn in school how to use books when there is no school. Books have been

improperly used in school if, when school is over, the children feel no need to continue to read either them or others.

10. A knowledge of all the agencies of education in your community. It is, indeed, an excellence to recognize that education does not discontinue when the teacher goes away, and the books are closed. Any person, or thing, or situation, which so influences one that he behaves differently and for the better, has educated that one to that extent. The first educational agents of a child are its parents. There is a part of one's education that must be given by his parents. No other can do that for them. The child whose parents die in its infancy can never get just that part of its education. Another source of education is its friends and neighbors. Still another is its playmates. Other sources are the child's casual contacts with nature, the community, other people, teachers, books, the church, the store, the postoffice, the fancies of early childhood and the idealism of adolescence. To be sure, many of these sources of influence change a child for the worse, and may be said to deëducate him. But, whenever they serve to influence in him a change for the better, he is being educated by them. Books, then, are only one of the many sources of educational influences. Let the motion picture be recognized, when educationalized, as another such agency. If we have at heart the true interest of the children whom we teach, we shall be constantly thinking of those children and of their educational welfare, and we shall throw the weight of all our influence for those things which are educational and against those things which are deëducational. We shall pass judgment upon our own conduct, and shall eliminate from our own lives any thing or any practice which may not be truly educational in its influence upon the

children, whose conduct will, in a large measure, be determined a generation from now by what we *do* for them and *are* to them.

11. A proper use of the course of study. In many states there are courses of study issued by the State Department of Education, and it serves as a guide to all teachers in the states concerned. In other states county or city courses of study are issued. In others a course of study may be made out for a district or even for a single school. The *beginning teacher* needs to get hold of such a printed course of study. She will study it to ascertain just what text-books are permitted for the grades which she teaches; the amount of each subject to try to cover in a given year; the publishers and prices of the books adopted; the suggestions for the teaching of the several subjects. As this teacher has not taught before, she has not formed a judgment as to where to start in each subject for each grade, how much to assign as lessons, how fast to go. A familiarity with the course of study will help the teacher much to solve such problems. A good course of study will not only name books to be used as texts, and as supplementary books, but will often specify suggested portions of books for each grade; suggest problems useful in a given subject for a given grade; indicate sources of other materials; and even sometimes contain model lesson plans. Every teacher will do well to be familiar with the course of study for her own state, or county, or city, or school. It is well for her to have such a standard course of study as "The Speyer Curriculum." The course of study is a compendium of instructions from the authorized school authorities to the teachers, with reference to the subjects which are to be taught.

12. Provision for seat work. When the children finish their recitation, they are not to be left to

themselves to waste their time. (a) Children who are large enough to study alone can be given careful assignments of the next lesson as work to do, while other classes recite. (b) Children who are too small to be left to study alone may be given boxes of letters, words, numbers, with which they can work for some time alone. There are many such devices available. (c) While some children are at work at the blackboard, those at their seats in the same class must be given some work, either similar to that done at the board, or of a different character, to do. It is not merely to keep them busy; but to provide opportunity for *expression*. (d) The character of the seatwork and the quantity of it must be chosen to suit the age, the ability and the individuality of the pupils. We must recognize that all pupils do not respond with equal enthusiasm to the materials with which we put them to work. A good teacher works out a daily program and writes down the time at which each subject comes for recitation. In another column, or other columns, parallel to the column in which the recitations are listed, she writes the subjects which are to be studied at that time. But, in addition to this, frequently there must be rather hurried provision for work at the seats, to keep the children busy and to turn their tendencies to expression in directions that are proper. This will be further discussed in Chapter XXIV.

13. Careful introductions to recitations. The successful teacher approaches a new lesson to be recited in a way to build gradually an attitude of mind on the part of the pupils that is favorable to a congenial recitation. She does not come too fast; yet she does not approach the lesson lazily.

a. She tells a story that at once gets the attention and arouses the interest of the children in the lesson

material. This story is about something in which the children themselves are interested; and it has some connection with the recitation that is beginning. Or

b. She asks several questions, by way of review of lessons previously had, in order to establish the point of contact in the pupils' minds between that which they have previously learned and that which the teacher would teach them to-day. Or

c. She may even, in a way, rehearse the assignment made yesterday. Or

d. She asks development questions by means of which she brings the pupils through their own experience up to the point at which their interest is aroused in the lesson material.

A good teacher, like a good speaker, makes a careful introduction, so as to get established a proper apperceptive basis for the real message to be delivered through the recitation or the speech.

14. Large use of the showing method. Much discussion has been had of the principle of *visual education*. A child learns several times as much through his eye as through all the other senses. If this be half-way true, the good teacher will use those methods which will influence a child through his eye. In arithmetic work on areas, have the child draw the figure to *show* him how the figure looks whose area he seeks. In reading *show* the child how to read with expression. In spelling, *show* him how to divide the word into syllables. In studying content lessons, show the child how to select the important thoughts and organize them. In making things in manual arts, teachers *do show* him how to make them. Out in everyday life the child learns nearly everything by seeing someone else do it. The showing or imitation method, previously described in this book, has a large place in life. We make very little use of it

in school, and thereby squander much of the child's energies. One is not weak because of imitating others, either actual or ideal; he is strong, as evidenced by his choice of models worthy of imitation. When a child is reading a book, the author is endeavoring to *show* that child, by means of written words, how to do certain things. It is better for the teacher who is present, rather than the author who is absent, to *show* the child, through words which are spoken and acts which are seen by him, the correct way of doing the thing that is worth while to be done. Now, geniuses do not need to be shown much; but most of the children whom we teach are not geniuses and need to be shown. Nevertheless, geniuses profit rapidly by what is shown.

Let the process be gradually transferred to the pupil, to the end that he will become master of the process and become a *way-shower* to others and to the teacher. *Show*, only as an aid to mastery, not as an end in itself.

15. Holding all the class responsible for what goes on in class. Some teachers let a few pupils do all the work and thus get all the benefits. After all, a child is not educated by what the teacher says, but by what the teacher gets him to do. People are changed for the better, not merely through impression, but through expression. If that be true for a few, it is also true for all the members of the whole class. When assignments are made, the whole class should be held responsible for the doing of them. Sometimes a teacher will ask a few all the questions, give these same few all the extra assignments, send these few to the board most frequently, give them most attention in other respects. This is wrong in practice and in effect. It is a democratic society in which we live, and one child has a right to as much attention as any other one. A school procedure is educative only as it gets children to do something

The doing is the educative part of the process. "Every impression must eventuate in an expression,"¹ or there is no completed experience. That must be true of the whole class, not merely of a part of it. If the teacher has the interests of all at heart, she will hold the whole class responsible for all that is to take place in the class.

16. Keeping all busy the whole class period. It is a waste of time unjustifiable for a teacher to send one pupil to the board to work, while all the rest have nothing to do. If there be forty children in the room, and if the one sent to the board uses five minutes to do the work, there will be lost forty times five minutes by the class. If a teacher send to the board half of the class and give those at their seats nothing to do, the latter, because of their inactivity and because of their childish energy, will grow nervous over having nothing to do, and will soon give the teacher trouble. It may be throwing spitballs, shooting pieces of crayon, slapping each other over the head. The better plan is to give those at their seats something to do, as well as those at the board.

In rooms in which there will be more than one grade, or in which there are two or more sections of the same grade, the teacher will need to give attention to the class, the grade or the section which is not reciting as well as to those who are reciting. The non-reciting section should be given plenty to do, before starting with the other class.

Provision for those who are not reciting may be in the form of written work, seat work with objects, the use of number, letter and work boxes, and such things. Provision for keeping busy all the class period those who are in the reciting class may be had by rapid ques-

¹ Colvin, S.: *The Learning Process*, p. 15.

running, by holding the class responsible for the errors of others, by holding the pupils responsible for finding the excellences of what goes on in the class, by directing attention upon a problem of vital interest, by connecting the class work up with the situations with which they are familiar. The essential fact of this whole excellence is that the children are not in your class to have their time wasted, as it will be, if you do not have them doing something. Mental work stimulates, mental inactivity debilitates.

17. **Proper class movement.** Some teachers go so fast with their teaching that the children get "lost over" what they are studying. Others go so slowly that the children soon get bored. There is a proper movement, or a proper rate of procedure that concerns entirely the interest of the children. This cannot be determined by rule. The beginning teacher should consider this from the beginning, and go the "fast" of the rate of procedure as with the run in the best work. The movement must be fast enough, and only fast enough, to allow for thorough work and to hold the interest of the children.

18. **Appreciation by children of criticism of one another.** This is not so much fault-finding. It means finding the facts as they are, noting the excellences and giving suggestions for improvement. Children should be taught how to give each other constructive criticism. But if children ever learn to do this, it will be because some teacher teaches them how to learn it. Some teachers have the children learn to catch other read aloud and then point out the errors. A better plan is not to point out the errors at all. It is better to have the children learn, make note of the excellences and report them. As for their errors, let the children's criticisms be constructive, rather than fault-

finding. Let them tell what would have been right to say or do, rather than hold up the error which was made. This principle will hold in most cases. Only in a few is it necessary to point out errors rather than find substitute excellences. One of the things needed to be learned in our democracy is that of appreciation of expert constructive criticism. We must learn to appreciate being told what we should do, rather than seek to avoid being scolded for what we failed to do. There are a few teachers of successful experience along this line. In their rooms a child will give a constructive criticism to another child. The other child, instead of repelling the suggestion, will say to the first child, "Thank you. I will try to do that next time." It is natural for us to avoid criticism, and to be offended with any one who seeks to do us a kindness along this line. The better way is to appreciate criticism by others, even to seek it. Let the *beginning teacher* start out at first to achieve this excellence.

19. Much class work with open books. The old idea of recitation in which the child recites what he has memorized still retains its hold upon teachers at present. The modern meaning of the recitation period is that it is a *thinking* period. Sometimes reciting from memory interferes with thinking. In many geography recitations the books are kept open all the recitation periods. Yet the children learn more geography in the time than in any period in which they kept their books closed. Of course, the teacher must know how to have the children use their books and the supplementary books, their maps, their reference tables, and so forth. Good work may be had in geography, history and other content subjects, by having the children, with books open in class, read to tell what would be a proper topical heading for a paragraph, or a proper wording of the

heading of a chapter. Many chapters and paragraphs need their headings re-worded. In such a procedure the discussion method must have large place. Discussion, rather than recitation, is educative. "Thinking educates; nothing else does," in an intellectual way.

20. Keeping notebooks and scrapbooks. A good teacher recognizes that a human being can easily forget. Therefore, she keeps a little notebook in which she records all good ideas that come to her from all sources. She will refer to this notebook later and make use of what she recorded. In addition, she keeps a little scrapbook, in which she pastes all clippings of useful material which she has gathered from many sources. It is a little story read in a daily paper; or it is the experience of another teacher as found in a magazine; or it is a model lesson plan, or a model lesson outline, found somewhere. It is a group of statistics that she can use in a talk before the parents' association. There are many things that teachers find in their current reading that may well be clipped and kept in permanence by the teachers. In every schoolroom there occur many very humorous things. The teacher laughs at them at the time and even lets the children laugh. She usually forgets them in a day or two. The teacher with a notebook writes down that little original joke, or humorous incident, in the section reserved for that purpose. Within a single year she has collected enough original children's jokes to entertain her friends for an evening. Keep them. Many magazines would welcome them. But the best thing is to record the good ideas that come to you, or which you get from other teachers, in your little constant notebook. One of the great essayists kept with him a little notebook all the time. As a thought would come to him, he would record it. Later, he would gather these together, sort them out by

relationship, and weave them together into an essay to be read by the learned throughout the world.

21. Correlation of subjects. This means in practice the teaching of elements common to two or more subjects in such ways that what appears in one subject will reinforce the teaching in the other. Originally, it meant to use one subject as a "core" of a curriculum and group the others about it according to relationship. That has never been wholly practical; but it is possible and practical to use the subjects to help each other. Every lesson should be a language lesson. Every written lesson should be a writing lesson. Spelling should be made a part of other subjects to include the spelling of the important words in the other subjects. The geography of the movements and events of history is necessary to be included or the historical data will be meaningless. Poems based upon historical incidents should be read in connection with those events. The quantities of geography, the areas, the populations, should be made a matter of arithmetic. When the teacher reaches over into everyday life and uses the materials of the community and of current life as a part of the content of the subjects which she is trying to teach, she is correlating her teaching with life.

22. Children's use of complete sentences and consecutive discourse. When questions are asked by teachers the children's answers should be made in the form of complete sentences. It is as much a part of the teacher's method to let children answer in words, phrases, incorrect expressions, as to require them to answer in correct, complete sentences. Again, a teacher's method is *how* she does and also how she does not do. It should be an understanding of the children that when their teacher asks them a question, they are to respond in a complete sentence. If a sentence is the expression

of complete thought, and if education is the result of thinking, it is highly necessary that the children should be in constant practice in the use of complete sentences. This should be true in all subjects, in language, in reading, in history, in geography. Seldom is it allowable to answer your questions by a mere word or phrase. The children need to get the sentence habit as soon as possible, in order to build an intellectual framework for their thoughts. Start the children in the first grade at school to using short, correct, complete sentences; hold them to it throughout their school life. This will avoid many of the troubles of language teaching farther on. It is more important to acquire the habit of using correct, complete sentences than to know how to analyze sentences and to parse the words in the sentences.

The use of "consecutive discourse" implies that the pupil should learn to talk in paragraphs. He needs to learn to say several complete, correct sentences about one topic. If a teacher must pump out of a child's mind every fact, bit by bit, the education going on is of poor quality. A child should learn to take a topic and to say several related things about it. The method of the topical report is supposed to provide opportunity for consecutive discourse, so far as the recitation is concerned. It needs to go farther and include the method of discussion, in which the pupil will say several correct, complete sentences. If we are going to teach our children to think clearly, and to fortify them against hazy thinking, there is no better way early in their lives than to have them acquire the habit of using complete sentences in consecutive discourse. Dewey has said that language is as necessary for thinking as for the expression of thought.

23. Using the blackboard to accompany your teaching. There is hardly a subject in which the black-

board, if properly used, will not afford valuable aid. Outlines in history and other content subjects placed on the board help to make it possible for the children to see the big topic as a whole. In explaining words, having them written on the board makes possible a very much better explanation than if they are merely spoken, or used in a book. In teaching movements, a rough sketch made on the board helps to make clear the relative placing of the parts. In analyzing sentences the arrangement of the words of the sentences on the board so as to show relation is in place. In paragraph indentation, and other language forms, the showing of it on the board is tremendously better than the use of the merely oral telling method. In teaching children arithmetic the showing of the processes on the board is a much better way than an oral explanation by the teacher. It reaches all the class, when the doing of the same work on paper reaches only one pupil. The blackboard is such a valuable part of the school equipment that the teacher who neglects to use the blackboard a great deal is certainly omitting one of the greatest means available in teaching. To be able to use the blackboard well is certainly an excellence of high order.

24. Discussion by the pupils. This has been referred to several times already, but its importance justifies frequent reference to it. Let the teacher be not satisfied with a mere presentation of the facts. Let this be supplemented by discussion of those facts. "It is thinking that educates." Sometimes the facts may be presented through discussion. Some teachers constantly employ debates as a discussion device. It is poor teaching when the teacher is unable to stimulate sufficient interest to provoke the children to talk about the topic before the class, as to its causes, effects, probabilities and possibilities. The more a teacher thinks

about the matter that is being taught, the more easily can she lead her pupils to think and to talk about it in a related way. This is to appeal to the *beginning teachers* to begin early to make provision in their methods for discussion as well as for recitation.

25. Careful wording of generalizations. Those teachers who are all the time insisting that children shall express their conclusions in their own words, unaided, forget that, since children have limited vocabularies, they have not the words with which to clothe their generalizations. A conclusion is the place where you stop thinking. When your pupils, under your direction, have thought through a process to a conclusion, it is very necessary that the conclusion reached should be stated in words which are accurate and correct. If every child expresses his conclusions in his own way, and if most of the ways be inaccurate, a great intellectual prodigality has been permitted by the teacher. Suppose the teacher should, through an inductive study of certain words, develop the idea of noun. It would be folly not to have the children word a definition in a way which the children can all hold to forever thereafter. If the teacher has taught the processes of division of decimals, using a sufficiently large number of examples to make the procedure perfectly clear, it would be simple not to have that procedure generalized into a rule, which they may employ the rest of their lives. For it to have such validity, it is necessary that such a rule be very *carefully worded*. It is not necessary always, or even frequently, for the teacher to *tell* the children how to word such a rule; but it is necessary, in order to conserve the results of the teaching, to guide them to a careful wording of that principle, and then to have them afterwards use that wording. It is not sufficient merely to think. When

thought reaches a conclusion, it needs to be stated, or generalized, for use in subsequent thinking. Be sure that you guide the pupils to generalizations; be sure that these generalizations are made so as to be worthy of being quoted with some degree of authority in work or thinking yet to be done.

26. **Memorizing by the "whole" method.** There may be said to be three methods of memorizing:

a. **The line, or sentence, method.** By this method the pupil would repeat one line of poetry or one sentence of prose, till it might be memorized. When this is done, each line, or each sentence, stands out as independent of the rest. In the mind it is not associated with the other lines or sentences. Again, after repeating the last word of a line, the first word of the same line or sentence is repeated, as the repetition of this line is made again. Memorizing is most effective, when each word becomes associated with the word which follows it. In repeating the same line over so frequently, the last word of the line or sentence becomes associated with the first word of the same line or sentence. The fact that so many children fail in public recitation is often due to this poor line method of memorizing.

b. **The stanza, or paragraph, method.** In this method, instead of repeating the line or sentence, till it should be memorized, the pupil reads over the stanza or paragraph several times, without stopping at the end of lines or sentences to go back. There is no stopping point till the end of the stanza or paragraph is reached. The pupil goes over the stanza or paragraph, and over it again several times, till this unit can be recited without looking at the book. As the pupil reads it over, he gradually begins to take his eyes off the book and continues to do this, till it may be done through the stanza or paragraph. The advantages of this method appear

to be (1) that, with the exception of the last word of the stanza or paragraph, each word becomes correctly associated in the mind with the word which follows; (2) that all the complete thoughts making up one unit of thought or form in the whole selection are consecutive; and (3) the unit is not so large as to be tiresome.

c. **The whole-piece method.** In this method of memorizing the pupil takes the piece as a whole, whether it may be a poem, an oration, a lecture, or any other kind of material to be memorized, and reads it through as a whole many times, without stopping at the end of sentences or paragraphs, until the entire piece is carefully memorized. Some advantages of this plan are (1) that all the associations of words are with the words which follow them and no incorrect associations are formed in pupil's mind; and (2) the selection is seen as one large unit, rather than as several units or parts. One student said to the author one day, "I have just memorized a long selection by the whole-piece method, and I know it so well that I think I shall never forget it." This is probably the most effective of all methods of memorizing. Its only disadvantage appears in its tiresomeness, when long selections are memorized. However, if a student may make up his mind to memorize a selection, using this method, it is very easy to keep the selection memorized. In this connection, it may be said that, if a piece is worthy of permanent retention in memory, the selection should, after memorizing, be repeated as a whole occasionally. This might be done twice a week at first; once a week a little later; once in two weeks, still later; once a month after that for a while. The intervals between repetitions may be lengthened indefinitely until the selection may be practically permanently fixed in mind.

27. **Provision for practice and review.** When proc-

esses have been mastered, it is necessary that the children be practiced in those processes to insure that they shall become firmly established in habit. In piano-playing, fingering can be habituated through long periods of practice in the use of the method of fingering which has been found to be best. When the fundamental facts of arithmetic have been learned, much practice upon those facts must be provided, before they can ever be used with speed and accuracy. The same is true in penmanship, in singing, in spelling, in drawing, and in all the "form" subjects. To be sure, the teacher should endeavor to motivate the practices, to prevent their becoming a bore and to stimulate the pupils to do the practices. The child should be made to feel that these practices are worth while. But the point here to be made is that it is incumbent upon the teacher to learn something of the psychology of practice, the best practice methods and devices available in each subject in which practice is a requisite, and that she is the person whose duty it is to see that provision is made for the children to get proper practice in these subjects.

In "form" subjects, frequent practice is necessary to habituate the processes taught. Many teachers seem to think that the teaching task is over when the children understand what has been taught. Here is an error of very serious consequences. It takes very little explanation to cause understanding of the facts of penmanship; but it takes very much practice for several years to produce skill in writing. The same thing is true in the matter of playing a musical instrument. Endless practice is the price of excellence. It is said that Paderewski used to practice at the piano eighteen hours a day. Children are supposed to learn the multiplicative facts in the third grade at school; and they have to relearn

them in the fourth grade. In addition to that, there should be practice upon these facts throughout the elementary school. In addition to the incidental practice had in the use of the fundamentals in arithmetic, there should be a few minutes' practice place on the daily schedule, in which practice may be had in additive facts one day, subtractive facts the next day, multiplicative facts the next day, and divisional facts the next day, until the Curtis Standard Scores might be made. After learning how to spell the words listed, these should be practiced occasionally that they may not be forgotten. So on for other subjects that are more or less habit-forming.

Closely related to "practice" is "review." The author uses the latter in connection with "content" subjects, in contradistinction from the "form" subjects in which practice has such a large place. The reader would do well in this connection, in planning to achieve this excellence, to re-read the discussion of the review lesson given in Chapter IV. It makes no difference how well the matter may be taught at the time of passing a topic, if no review be had soon, the teacher need not be surprised at the children's lack of knowledge of what was recently taught. While a general review is to give a new view of the material previously covered, the brief review of a small part of the matter is in place frequently and is to keep the children reminded of what they have learned. In spelling, words learned in the week need all to be reviewed or rehearsed every Friday. Large facts in history and hygiene need to be recalled occasionally, "lest we forget." Large facts in geography may be easily recalled and reviewed by a proper application of the principle of comparison. For example, as the children are studying the surface of Europe, the children may compare the surface of

Europe with that of North America and of South America, previously studied, and so on. In arithmetic, processes previously satisfactorily mastered may be kept recalled by giving occasionally an example in the process already learned. If the material may be recalled occasionally over an extended period of time, the process tends to become "set" in the pupils' minds so that it is almost impossible to be forgotten. But it is the teacher's task to know this psychological fact, and so arrange the pupils' work that reviews may be given of the right kind and with the proper frequency to make permanent the experiences desired. Let all valuable material learned be recalled occasionally to make sure that what your children have learned continues to be retained by them. The value of any experience is lost, if it cannot be later recalled, when needed. The likelihood of its being recalled is conditioned upon its being frequently recalled soon after being learned.

In "content" subjects the large facts should be reviewed occasionally that they may be remembered. The large facts of history, geography, hygiene, should be covered again and again, in ways to give a larger view of them and a clearer perspective. After mastering a new topic in arithmetic, as lumbering, an occasional example involving lumbering should be thrown in to keep the topic fresh in the pupil's mind over a period of time, increasing the likelihood of permanent retention.

Children are not going to practice or review unless that be made a part of their program. The teacher who fails to provide for practice and review of the lesson materials covered will very soon become very conscious of a very big error, as she begins to see that the children seem to have forgotten everything that she has taught them. The children are not responsible for forgetting.

They are by nature forgetful, just as you and I are. On the other hand, the teacher is very responsible for their remembering what she has taught them, by reason of the opportunities provided for practice and review of the matter taught. There is no error that leads to greater waste of teaching effort than the failure to provide in your program and procedure for sufficient practice to lead toward real skill in reading, spelling, the fundamental facts of number, writing, language, and the failure to provide sufficient review in history, geography, hygiene, the advanced topics of arithmetic to provide organization of the chief facts and their easy retention.

28. Proper attention to the individuality of the pupils. Individuality of a pupil does not mean the worse side of his nature. The encouraging of the development and the expression of his individuality does not mean letting a child "run wild." Individuality in terms of modern social life means the expression of some tendencies of nature, the suppression, or restraint, or the annihilation of others, and the re-direction of still others. The idea back of this discussion here is that the teacher should make allowance for pupils individually different from others. If he is deaf, he should be seated near the front. If he is nearsighted, he should be seated in the place at which he can see to the best advantage. In cases of this kind, and of other kinds, the parents should be notified, and the welfare officer or any other officer or agency that seeks to aid children who need such help. If the child be exceedingly nervous, the teacher should avoid situations that unduly excite this child.

In the matter of subjects, while most children can do fairly well just the work prescribed, there are some children in every class of the customary size who have some

difficulty in keeping up. There are others, a few, who not only find it easy to keep up, but who are able to do a great deal more than the other children of the room. The first class we sometimes call subnormal; the other we sometimes call supernormal. True, kindly sympathy should be shown the children of the first class. Extra work and little attention is needed to be given the second class, the members of which need nothing more than plenty of work and some direction and they will do the rest.

There is an individual liking of subjects. When a child is found with a strong liking for a given subject, that child should be encouraged. A teacher had a child in school a generation ago who was regarded as hopeless in his subjects. However, he did well in drawing. When his teacher found that out, she had him draw everything in connection with all his lessons which lent itself to the purpose of drawing. That proved to be the boy's salvation. To-day he is one of the greatest architects in the country. One day a boy in a given grade went to his teacher and asked if he might be promoted in his arithmetic from the sixth to the seventh grade. The teacher knew that he was doing his other work well, and that he was very good in arithmetic. The teacher said, "I can not promote you, as that would involve your missing several topics in arithmetic, which you have not had. If you desire, though, I will let you take the arithmetic work of both grades." The boy fell in with it. He would recite with the sixth grade, when it was called; when the seventh grade was called he would come again, turn the leaves of his book over to the seventh grade place and recite equally well there. If a boy is strong in history, encourage him to read several supplementary books on history. If he likes geography, encourage him to read some geographical

readers, or to subscribe to the Geographical Magazine. If he likes the classics of the variety that comes in his school readers, lend him some other books, containing the classic stories which he enjoys. If he takes strongly to handwork, help him find extra time to put on his manual training. If you have no provision for that at school, encourage him to do such work at home; then let him exhibit his work at school when it is finished. One boy in a school in which no provision was made for manual training made a miniature train, with the different types of cars. His teacher encouraged him to bring it to school and exhibit it, which he did. Whenever you find a point along which the pupil does well, encourage it, and try to connect that up with your school work. That is his strong point, and it is possible that his vocation in life will have some relation to that very thing. Do not make fun of what a child is interested in, because it is different from the set school program; use that line of interest to help educate that child into worthy citizenship. One teacher found out that a boy who was not interested in history was interested in horses. After that she arranged to get a horse into every lesson possible. She had him tell about Paul Revere's ride, about Putnam's galloping down the stone steps, about McCulloch's leap at Wheeling, and the like. He soon became the most enthusiastic history pupil in the class. If a child is interested in nature, have that child exhibit at school some of the things that have interested him. These self-initiated enterprises are sometimes the most educational things that you can encourage for a given child. Encourage a child in all proper lines of individuality; thereby you conserve nature's gifts within him.

29. **100% recitations.** The author is informed of a private school in which the ideal of good work is so all-

pervading that every pupil feels the necessity of perfect class work every day. Every example assigned in arithmetic is worked out, before class time; every word in spelling is mastered; every question in geography or history is looked up. The members of the class have mastered their work as assigned, and seem to feel disgraced, if they fall down on just a small thing. The teacher feels such confidence in his pupils that he is willing to turn the class over to any one, even a stranger, that any questions bearing upon the lesson may be asked, with the full expectation that any pupil in the class will be able to take care of himself in his answers. Every day's work stands for itself. In another school, while the work was not always so nearly perfect as in the school just mentioned, any pupil missing any question, or problem, would remain after school voluntarily that the teacher might help him get the thing right, before he left school. One of the finest influences that a teacher can exercise upon a pupil is that of making the pupil just WANT to do a fine, artistic job in his school work, to go in the direction of perfection in the task that he is performing. Out of such wants grow the works of the artists. It is better for a teacher to have a certain time to close school, and to give every child that does his assignments well, producing a perfect lesson in every subject, a half-hour of holiday at the close of the day, than to keep such a child in two hours after school as a punishment for missed lessons. Get the child to WANT to excel in his work, and want to do that so much that he will be willing to do the hard work that results in the production of an artist, whatever the line of his life.

30. Careful planning of the day's work and the individual lessons. The teacher who carefully plans day by day the work of each day and for the year, and

who does not work haphazard, is doing a work that is going to count. Her influence will not be ephemeral. She will guide the children into the organizing of useful life facts into big ideas. Careful planning is an excellence that cannot be omitted, if success in teaching is to follow. Let every beginning teacher from the very first study each day's lesson and plan the work of each so that the teacher will from the very first day's work appear as a master of the subject and of the method employed.

31. Teaching the use of the dictionary, reference tables, reference books. Such books are of great utility in life. Their use should be taught from the fourth grade up. Some grown people have never learned the way the letters come in the alphabet, and have great difficulty in using a dictionary or encyclopedia. The teaching methods must certainly be planned to include in the children's exercises the use of these books. Many teachers disregard the reference tables in the geographies and other books in the children's hands. Such a procedure is certainly an error in method to be avoided. Carefully planned lessons will include the use of tables and other supplementary materials.

32. Teaching the children how to study. The traditions of the school have been that the teacher is to tell the children the things which they ought to know, and that studying is only memorizing. Now that *studying* is made synonymous with thinking, it becomes the task of the teacher to teach the children how to learn the things which they ought to know. A good teacher will take some time, even some lesson periods, in which she will actually study with the children the lessons assigned, in order to help them acquire a good method of study. She will not stop at merely giving directions. Children usually learn about twice as fast in their

study, when under the guidance of the teacher. They might learn as fast by themselves, if they know how to study alone. It is worth while, if children themselves may recognize how to study alone, and if they may recognize certain factors making for efficient study. Among these are the following:

- a. A quiet place;
- b. Everything in place before beginning to study;
- c. A statement of questions to be answered, of problems to be solved, of purposes to be achieved, of uses to be served, in advance;
- d. Deciding what sort of material to select and what sort to omit;
- e. A listing of questions on which further help is needed;
- f. A proper grouping of facts taken;
- g. A knowledge of how to memorize, to practice, to review;
- h. A willingness to suspend judgment till all the facts are in, in mooted questions.
- i. Not taking everything for granted, without understanding, just because it is in a book.
- j. A disposition to test out, to be sure, before accepting as true.

The children will be with you at best but a few years, or possibly only one year. When they shall have gone away from the teacher, they must study alone. If they know not how to study alone, they cannot profit by the rich stores of human experience collected in books. They cannot always have the benefit of a teacher beside them. If they be taught how to study properly, they can become independent of a teacher in the reading of books and their education will not cease when the teacher takes her departure. Even the books which the children use as texts in schools may be largely meaning-

less, unless the children be shown economical methods of using them in school. It is an error not to teach the children how to use books in school in such way that they may continue to employ good methods of book use in their private lives.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. Go over the foregoing *excellences* one by one and make a list of those which you consider worth while to you. Write beside each the reason why you have chosen it.
2. Write out a list of other excellences which you think you should strive for. Compare your list with those of four other persons.
3. Re-arrange the excellences listed in this chapter, in the order of their importance, writing the most important down

first, and going on down to those which you consider least important.

4. How important do you consider the owning of the text books from which one teaches and the making of a careful daily preparation? (See XII, 7)
5. Make a list of supplementary materials usable in your school room. Ask some of your friends to help you enlarge the list.
6. What are all the agencies of education in your community? Which of these supplement, and which detract from, the influence of the school?
7. Take your course of study and write out a list of goals in the several subjects which you are to teach to be reached by the end of the session. Specify by topics and by pages to be reached.
8. When you begin teaching, notice and study whether your class movement is too fast or too slow. How remedy it?
9. How bring the children's giving, and appreciation of, friendly constructive criticism?
10. How would you correlate spelling with geography? Geography with history? Drawing with language? Writing with any other subject? Language with any other subject?
11. Can children be led into habits of use of complete sentences and consecutive discourse? How?
12. List all the ways in which you may use the blackboard to advantage.
13. How get the children to participate in class discussion? Ask ten other teachers how to do this.
14. How teach children to memorize a 20-line poem? Why?
15. How much should you provide for practice in spelling? Number combinations? Writing? Drawing? Piano-playing? Re-read Chapter III for "Conditions of Effective Practice."
16. How provide for effective reviews in history, geography, arithmetic, hygiene, civics? How often in each case?
17. What are some of the ways in which you may help develop and conserve children's individuality?
18. Ought a teacher to hold up 100 per cent efficiency standards for each day's work? How in the case of each subject?
19. How guide the children into efficient study habits? Should children be given in the assignments of their lessons a few large questions for study? In what subjects? Why?

CHAPTER XIII

TEACHING ERRORS TO AVOID

AFTER presenting in last chapter many excellences to be achieved in teaching, the author in this chapter presents a number of errors in teaching which the beginning teacher may well seek to avoid. Many of them may seem very simple to the successful teacher; but many a failure as a teacher has come from the fact that the beginning teacher did not know **how to avoid** doing those here mentioned. Hughes in his *Mistakes in Teaching* has made a great list of them. The teacher may achieve all the excellences mentioned in the preceding chapters, and do all the other things mentioned in this book, yet she may commit one of the errors mentioned in this chapter and be marked down by the community as a failure. While any one of them is an error, not all of them are thus recognized as such by the community. Some of them, though not recognized as errors by many parents, would be noted at once by an expert supervisor.

1. **The use of certain expressions.** There are many terms, or expressions, used by teachers that are useless and harmful. A few of them are given below.

a. **The "and" habit.** Even some teachers do not speak in sentences, but in a continuing discourse. At points where pauses of voice, indicated by periods, would come, the pause is of such short duration that a comma would be sufficient. After such a short pause the teacher introduces the additional thought with

“and.” Some of them even say “ander.” The teacher should not only not use such an expression, but should break up the habit among the children. In telling Bible stories, the “and” which comes at the beginning of so many sentences should be omitted. The “and” used there is due to the fact that one conjunction in the Hebrew was responsible for it. Let the teacher get into the habit of speaking in correct, short sentences, with proper pauses after each.

b. **“What”, “When”, “Where”, “How”, at the end of questions.** The teacher asks such questions as the following: “The object of that verb is *what*?” “Arizona is located *where*?” “The Battle of Lexington took place *when*?” “That example is worked *how*?” A better way of saying them is, “What is the object of that verb?” “Locate Arizona”; “How would you work that example?” “When did the Battle of Lexington take place?”

c. **“Who can tell?” “Don’t you remember?” “I am afraid you haven’t been studying”.** These are mannerisms that soon grow to such a degree in a teacher’s habits as to become nerve-racking to those who hear them. Leave them off.

d. **Other mannerisms.** It is easy for the teacher to fall into the habit of saying, after each answer is given, “All right,” or “Very well,” or “Fine.” While these are not errors of speech, yet for you to use them constantly gets on your pupils’ nerves. Some teachers use “kinder” in the sense of *rather*, or *somewhat*. For example, “I’m kinder cold today.” Let us teachers try to use regularly correct language before our pupils whom we are trying to teach how to use correct language. Let us not theorize one thing in language and practice another.

2. Errors in class.

a. **Letting all the children speak at once.** No good teaching can be done without order in your class. If children all answer questions at one time, or if they all talk at one time, your teaching becomes "confusion worse confounded." It is well for the children to have something to say and be enthusiastic about it; it is better for them, in addition to that, to recognize the rules of decent human society in which every one respects the rights of every one else. In any kind of a class, training for citizenship is taking place, and the children are learning how to treat with consideration every other in the group. No teacher can teach to any advantage, without order. Let every child learn how to secure the recognition of the teacher in order to speak, and how to keep silent if some other child gets this recognition first. No teacher can afford to permit indiscriminate talking by the members of the class, all talking at once, no one listening to any one else, and the teacher unable to put a stop to it. That is disgraceful disorder. Do not permit them to answer when not called on; do not permit several to speak at once.

b. **The teacher's telling too much.** There are many things that must be told by the teacher. No one else is prepared to tell it quite as well. The personal telling by the teacher is better than the representative telling by the author, if the teacher tell the thing well. However, some teachers practice telling that which the children should tell. A teacher of history in high school may come to like the subject so well, and to know it so well, that, when the class appears before her, she may feel that she must just *tell* it all by lecture. That would be a mistake. The more the teacher can get the pupils to tell her the better it is for the pupils. The *impressions* given through telling merely start experiences;

expressions must complete them. In arithmetic it would be an error to use the telling method, when the development method is available. In spelling, it is an error to *tell* the meaning of the word, if it can be developed from the context, or if dictionaries are available. When a word may be divided into syllables and sounded as by phonics, it is an error to *tell* the pronunciation, though help may be given in the division into syllables. It is an error to *tell* much that can be developed from within the child's mind or that the child can be led to get for himself through application of methods of study previously mastered.

c. **Wandering from the main ideas.** It is, indeed, well that the children should become very interested in their recitation, and enthusiastic about it; but it is an error to let them lead the teacher far afield from the main ideas of the lesson. The principle of organization necessitates the teacher's holding the children to the point under discussion. When they begin to introduce irrelevant ideas, the teacher does well to ask what bearing they have upon the main topic. The members of the class will rule them out, when brought before the class for attention. In the recitation of fact and the discussion of ideas, let there be a main idea to which attention must be called occasionally.

3. **Disputing with the children.** It is not well to argue with children either as to fact or idea. The teacher may conduct a discussion, and should do so, in which the children argue with each other, observing certain rules set up for argument. She, however, has nothing to gain and much to lose by arguing with them herself. One day a teacher, in the geometry class, had been pronouncing the word "alternate" with a broad sound for the first *a* and with an accent on the first syllable. A new pupil in the class said to the teacher,

"We always pronounced that word with the first *a* short and with an accent on the second syllable." Instead of arguing with the pupil, the teacher said very wisely, "I am glad to have you call my attention to that word. My teachers in college pronounced the word as I have been pronouncing it; but I have never looked up the pronunciation in the dictionary. Would you mind getting the dictionary and looking it up for us right now?" This was done and the pupil's pronunciation was found to be right. This was the right procedure, even if the pupil's pronunciation had been found wrong. If in this case the teacher had disputed with the pupil, he would have been in a delicate situation, when the real fact was brought out. Sometimes, in a case like that, it is well to carry forward the point till the next day. Give the child who brings a new fact into the lesson credit, encouragement and thanks for his contribution.

4. Correcting errors without eradicating them. This error is committed in the teaching of language, arithmetic, in reading, and in other subjects. It is true in discipline and management. In language the child may begin all his sentences with small letters. The teacher may correct that, and the child may continue to do the same thing in future sentences. In arithmetic, the child may be corrected by his teacher in the manner of correctly stating his problem. The child may in the next class do the same thing. In reading, he may mispronounce the word over and over again, after being given the correct pronunciation by the teacher. To let this thing go on is emphatically erroneous as a teaching procedure. The teacher must bring to bear such devices of discipline as will focus that child's attention on the error corrected to the end that it will not be repeated. Even in a child's education there are some errors to avoid, as well as many excel-

lences to achieve. Those errors must often be called to the children's attention and corrected; and they must be broken up.

5. Assigning too much home work. As soon as a child gets large enough to know how to study alone, he should be given some outside work to be done by him at home. This home work should be of the applicational or deductive type. Children should not be asked to begin a new topic in home work. In arithmetic, when a rule, developed inductively, comes to be understood, it is proper to give to the children a number of problems based on this rule. This is for application, for review, for practice. This will be true of other subjects. Sometimes the beginning teacher assigns as much in each lesson as if there were no other subject in which home work has been assigned. This is an error. It causes children to become disgusted with school and parents to become critical of the teacher. Encourage the children to work hard; hold that up to them as an ideal. Do not assign them impossibilities. Do not assign them so much work as to require them to sit up long after the family has retired at night. Take an inventory of the situation occasionally. See just about how much time all who do satisfactory work are studying. If they are studying too long, then the home work may well be shortened. The lazy ones must be stimulated. Recognize the requirements for home duties. Do not put so much on the children as to produce a conflict between home duties and school duties at home. There are reasonable home requirements for teachers to assign children. Endeavor to discover what is reasonable, by watching your children. If you find you are giving too little, increase your home assignments; if the other, lessen them.

6. Requiring too much written work. Some teachers

require so much written work that they have no time to look over it, criticize it, or confer with the pupils about it. The children also find out that the papers are thrown into the waste basket without being looked over; then, the children fall into the habit of careless written work, and harm instead of good is done them by the much writing of papers. The bad habits of children brought on by this requirement find expression in an antagonistic attitude toward written work. It is decidedly better to have a small amount of written work which produces really educative effects than to have much of what is not educative, and possibly harmful. Let the written work be reasonable in amount and require that it be done carefully and correctly. To do otherwise is to commit an error that is of far-reaching ill effects. It is doubtful, however, whether much writing ought to be required of elementary school pupils, except that which may be done under the supervision of the teacher. As long as written exercises are educational, they are in place and proper. When they become deeducational through the development of improper attitude toward school work or toward the teacher and through the development of habits of dawdling in writing and in other school activities, they are out of place and improper.

7. Teaching too much in one recitation. Probably, though, one never teaches too much in one recitation; maybe he or she only tries to do so. At any rate, one can cover so much ground that the work is very poorly done. It is an error to sacrifice thoroughness for amount of subject-matter. Let the work be thoroughly done, as far as it goes. It is probable that much more can be taught well than is now taught poorly. For beginning teachers, a published course of study, laying out the work for given grades in terms of amounts of topics

and text-books, is of great value in guiding the teacher as to the probably reasonable amount to undertake. The pupils should be informed of what is laid out for the year or term. The pupils, then, may be called on to help make the assignment, looking forward to the attainment of the year's goal. Taking them into the teacher's confidence as to how much work is expected to be accomplished within the year will serve as a stimulus for their daily study. It will be easier to get them to see the need of thorough preparation of their lessons each day. Get your pupils to do a great deal of work; but let it be well-done work. Quality is more valuable and more vital than quantity. Attempt as much as can be done well, and not more, when full time at hard work is given to the assignment.

8. Not holding children responsible for assignments.

Assignments of lessons must be done in reason. Unreasonable tasks should never be assigned. That which children can do should be assigned to be done in a reasonable time. Sometimes children may be sick, or they may have peculiar circumstances at home. It is well to consider other circumstances than merely the fact that you assigned thus and so for the children to do. However, the foregoing represents the exceptions. In general, children should be held rigidly responsible for the lesson assigned. The reading should be so well prepared that all words can be pronounced without hesitation. The arithmetic lesson should be so well mastered that every pupil in the class can solve every problem in the assignment, when called on. There should be opportunity provided for the pupils individually to see the teacher about problems that are difficult before the class is called. It is not well that the time of the recitation should be taken up by the teacher in explaining to one or two pupils examples that ought to have

been explained by the teacher and mastered by the pupils before the class was called. The questions in geography should have been answered by the pupils before they are called to recite in this subject. So it goes for all the subjects in which assignment for private study is made. It is possible for a teacher to get the children to do their assigned tasks, and get this in a congenial way. It certainly is a serious error for the children to be permitted to fall into the supposition that it makes little difference whether a lesson assigned is to be prepared or not. Children should understand that, unless obstacles are very much beyond their control, these lessons must be thoroughly prepared as assigned. In cases like this, then, a quick, brief recitation can be had in two thirds of the recitation period, the other third being left for a very thorough assignment of the next lesson. Pupils should come to understand that nothing short of a 100% lesson absolutely satisfies the demands for the recitation. Let the children see from the beginning, but let yourself tactfully and congenially lead them to see it, that they are going to be held rigidly responsible for the lessons assigned.

9. Running over time. Some people seem not to possess a time sense. They do not meet engagements at the time at which they have them. If they get started to talking, they do not seem to know how to stop. If they are teaching, they pay little heed to the schedule under which they are supposed to work, they little notice it until they are past the time for closing. Then there is no time left for properly assigning the next lesson. A public speaker who announces in advance how long he will speak usually runs over time. If he says he will speak for eight minutes, he will speak for eighteen. The teacher who is going to be a success notices the time just enough to see how everything is

getting along. She gets everything done in good shape, and yet there is time left over. She uses this to good purpose in making the assignment of the next lesson; the chief difficulties are all cleared up; the children are given such a start on toward the preparation of the next lesson that excellent work is done and continues to be done.

10. **Being indefinite in teaching.** In this error the thing taught is not sharply separated from other things. They are all mixed up. The boundaries of the thing taught are not marked off. The teacher needs to master the subject-matter thoroughly. Study to find the few large essentials. In reading a paragraph, what is the one sentence that seems practically to sum up all the thought of the paragraph? Get the thing that you want to teach definite and specific. Be as thorough in this that you may lay down the book and be absolutely independent of it. A certain primary teacher is so definite in all lessons that it is easy for a visitor to see just what she is driving at. Every bit of material used, every procedure employed, all contribute to the achievement of the aim which is definite and specific. She is never hazy.

11. **Confusing application with generalization.** In this error the teacher thinks of generalization of a process as being the giving of some problems to solve after a process has been explained. As a matter of fact, the generalization is the summing up of a process and the stating of it as a rule. It comes after observing carefully several specific cases. After observing the beginning of several sentences, one generalizes by saying "All sentences begin with capital letters." After observing the directions of several streams of water, one may generalize by saying, "All streams flow downhill." After observing how several weak verbs

form their past tense, one may generalize, "All weak verbs form their past tense by adding *d* or *ed* to the present form." While generalization is the stating of a principle in the form of a rule, after observing the specific cases, comparing and finding a common fact true of all the cases, application is taking the generalization and fitting it to specific cases for the purpose of solving the problems involved, testing or further developing the generalization. While the difference is very great, yet many teachers confuse the two.

12. Not having maps, books, and other supplementary materials ready. Teachers are sometimes embarrassed and the pupils lose time by reason of the teachers' not having the illustrative material ready. If supplementary books are to be used, they should be in place, the page found and marked. If maps are to be used, the right ones should be in the room and in place. If pictures, photographs, specimens, are to be used, get them ready beforehand. Let all the supplementary materials needed be secured in advance. It is inexcusable to waste the pupils' time by their having to wait till such things can be found.

13. Indefinite assignment of home work. When children finish their class work, all of them should know very definitely what is to be done for next time. They should know what they are to do in spelling, in reading, in arithmetic, in geography and in the other subjects. There should be no doubt in their minds concerning any lesson or part of a lesson in the matter of what they must do in the way of preparation for the next day. Because of the indefiniteness of some assignments of home work, children sometimes are unable to prepare their work as desired by their teacher. One never loses anything by being definite. Study the night before

how to assign the lessons which you will assign tomorrow.

14. **Interrupting pupils while they are reciting.** In view of a pupil's immaturity and his tendency to avoid much public recitation, he should be encouraged to engage in consecutive discourse. It is certainly a discouragement, as well as an act of impoliteness, when a pupil is standing up, doing the best he can, for the teacher to break in constantly for the purpose of correction. When the child starts, encourage him to go as far as he can, alone. It is an error to break in on him every time he says the slightest thing in a way that is somewhat incorrect.

15. **Exemptions from reviews and examinations.** In some schools it is a practice to excuse or exempt from tests, reviews, or examinations those who make in class work a certain standard. The pupils thus excused are very pleased, and their parents are very proud. Nevertheless, it is very decidedly an educational error for the following reasons:

a. Pupils soon learn how to estimate their probabilities of being excused and feel no necessity to try to retain what they have learned.

b. Often the glibness with which some children recite leads the teacher to over-estimate the work done by such pupils; if examined at the regular time, those children are found to fall below previous estimation.

c. The only worthy motive for ordinary examinations in elementary schools is that of review. Brilliant pupils need the review as much as any pupils. The brighter the pupils the more good the review will do them. Pupils are being denied a large part of their educational rights by being excused from examinations. The teacher does not need examinations for "test," if she at all knows her pupils. She has the examination only to

furnish a strong motive for an effective review, which will serve to give a new view of the matter covered.

d. Psychologically, the expectation that an examination will come serves to cause a pupil to retain what he has learned over a sufficient period for it to become "set" in his mind, and thus to make more nearly permanent what he has acquired through learning.

Require all pupils to take all tests, reviews, examinations. This is for their intellectual good. Excusing children of these exercises, because they happen to be bright, tends to foster a certain intellectual snobbishness and to produce certain results not at all educational in their effects.

CLASS PROBLEMS

1. What expressions other than those mentioned in this chapter are used by you and other teachers known to you which somewhat interfere with the best teaching? What mannerisms?
2. Take each error in class mentioned in this chapter and show how it may be broken up.
3. Criticize the author's discussion of "Disputing With Children."
4. What difference will it make, even if you do not take the time to teach your children how to study? (XII; 32)
5. What sorts of assignments may be made for home work? Explain for each separate subject. What is meant by correcting errors without eradicating them?
6. Can too much written work be required? Too little? What shall we do about it?
7. How much shall we undertake to teach in one recitation period? One big fact, or 75 small ones? Why? Which is worth more in education, a few things well learned or many things poorly learned? Why do you think so?
8. Why should children be held responsible for preparing the work assigned?
9. What evils attend running over time?
10. How definite are you making the assignments of work for the children? How would you make the assignment of a lesson in bank discount, in arithmetic, definite, so that chil-

dren will have no doubt about what they are expected to do and how to go about it?

11. Do you give the children a chance to finish reciting what they have to recite? Are they frequently interrupted? Why, in each case?
12. Resolved, That children who make 85 per cent or better should be excused from all examinations, tests and reviews. Debate this query.

CHAPTER XIV

SPECIMEN LESSON PLANS

IN this chapter are given several specimen lesson plans as guides to the beginning teachers to systematize planning of the lessons to be taught. A written plan in every subject is not thought necessary here. Those given will serve as samples by which to work. It is not expected that teachers will have the time to write out plans in so great detail for all lessons to be taught. It is suggested that the beginning teacher, before school shall begin, actually work out a few plans in great detail, using these as models. This will enable her to know what points are worth while in planning lessons. When school actually shall begin, there will be too many things to do to have the time left to prepare many plans by methods requiring much research and writing. Notwithstanding the lack of time for a thorough, systematic writing out of a plan for every lesson to be taught, there is every reason why the teacher should prepare each lesson daily to be taught. It is thought that, if the beginning teacher will actually work out a few plans ahead, her mind will begin to include just those steps that make for systematic teaching. So the following questions, covering the points of the plan, will help her prepare quickly and systematically for teaching each lesson, if she will only ask herself and answer for herself these questions about each lesson which she is preparing:

1. What *type* of lesson is this?

2. What is the *aim* of this lesson for myself? For the pupils?

3. How should I *assign* it, to insure efficient work by the children?

4. What *results* have I a reasonable right to *expect* from the children from their study and recitation of this lesson?

5. What *methods* ought I to employ to accomplish these results?

6. How shall I *introduce* this lesson so that I may give it its proper setting in the children's minds and develop in them a proper attitude toward it?

7. How shall I *organize* the subject-matter of this lesson that, as the children shall discuss it with me in the recitation, it will take organized form in their minds as a large unit of material?

8. How shall I vary my *methods* as the recitation shall proceed?

9. When the recitation shall be finished, how shall I lead the children to *summarize* it, or generalize it, or rehearse it, as the case may require?

When a student is doing practice-teaching, it is well that he or she should have few enough subjects to prepare them well and in great detail. This very careful and detailed writing of plans should be carried on through the first two thirds of the practice-teaching time. After that, the written plans should be on 2 by 4 note paper and should include only an outline of subject-matter, with a few notes on method. That amount of a written plan may be kept up right on through all subsequent teaching experience.

In the case of teachers who really desire to plan carefully and systematically their work and have not had the opportunity of *practice-teaching* under careful supervisors, it is well (1) to get a number of plans

worked out in detail ahead of school time, and (2) after that, for lack of sufficient time, to organize the subject-matter carefully according to point B, II, of the plans here presented, putting in a few notes on method. This may be done by use of a small 2 by 4 notebook. The few big essentials are thus noted down for use.

Compare the lesson plans which follow with the discussions which have preceded. Study them, criticize them. You need not copy them; if you are thus stimulated to plan carefully after some good system your own work, the purpose of this chapter will be accomplished.

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LESSON PLAN 1

Subject: *Spelling.*

Grade: *Fourth.*

Lesson Type: *Information, Practice.*

A. Lesson Analyzed.

I. Aims.

1. Teacher's—

- a. Aim of course: to teach the children how to spell and to use correctly all the words in our text, pp. 66-95.

- b. Aim of the lesson: to teach the children how to spell and to use correctly five words assigned.
2. Pupil's specific aim: to learn—
 - a. How to pronounce correctly all the five words;
 - b. How to spell orally and in writing these words; and
 - c. How to use them in sentences.
- II. Assignment.
 1. This time we have five words for our lesson.
 2. Page 116, Fourth Year, Jones's Spelling Book.
 3. We want to know four things about these words:
 - a. How to pronounce each word by syllables and as a whole;
 - b. How to spell orally each word by syllables and as a whole; and
 - c. How to write each word as a whole; and
 - d. How to use each word in a sentence.
 4. I shall show you how to pronounce each word. I shall pronounce each for you, and you pronounce it after me. This way: Par lor, parlor; etc. (for both ear-training and voice-training).
- III. Results expected. That all the children will be able:
 1. To pronounce all five words by syllables and as a whole (voice-training).
 2. To spell orally each word by syllables and as a whole (voice-training);
 3. To write correctly each word as a whole (motor training); and
 4. To use correctly each word in a sentence (for meaning).
- IV. Methods and devices by which to accomplish these results.
 1. I shall again hold up the ideal for good work—to make 100 per cent record in spelling.
 2. With their books open, they will pronounce each word by syllables and as a whole, individually and collectively (for voice-training).
 3. I shall pronounce the words for the children individually to spell orally by syllables and pronounce as a whole (for imitation in ear-training and voice-training).
 4. I shall pronounce the words for the children to write as a whole (for ear-training and expression).
 5. I shall ask the children to put their words on side of desk easy for me to see. I shall then ask them to write sentences containing the words. While they are

doing this, I will slip down the aisles and quickly check up their written spelling. To those who spell all words right, I shall give 100 per cent. .
(This is for language expression).

6. I shall take up the papers containing sentences written.
7. In assigning the next lesson, I shall pronounce each word and have the children pronounce after me, by syllables and as a whole.

B. Recitation.

- I. 1. Refer to need for correct spelling, both for high standing and for its usefulness, stressing the ideal of 100 per cent in spelling lesson.
- II. Subject-matter.
- III. Methods in detail.

1. New words:

parlor
parrot
paddle
lantern
medicine

1. Have the children, with books open, pronounce these words by syllables and as a whole, by one individual for a word and then by all for the same word.

2. Other words recently missed:

loose
bruise

2. Their books being closed, give out the words, and let one child spell a word by syllables, and pronounce it as a whole; then let the class repeat the same spelling.

3. Words spelled in the last two lessons.

3. With their writing pads and pencils ready, let them write the words as wholes, as you dictate them.

4. Put on board several of the words. Have the children make good, complete sentences of them. They should leave their already written words exposed so that, as they write their

sentences, the teacher can pass rapidly down the aisles and check up their written spelling.

5. Have the words of the last two lessons re-spelled; also those recently missed.

- IV. a. The spelling words have been rehearsed four times in the recitation; no further rehearsal of them is needed at close of recitation.
- b. These same words should be rehearsed immediately three or four days in succession, and then all review for a spelling match on Friday every two or three weeks.

NOTE: a. Review and drill are necessary to enable pupils to remember the words which they have learned.

- b. Twenty minutes will be needed for this recitation.

LESSON PLAN 2

A Plan for Four Days

Subject: *Spelling.*

Type: *Review.*

Grade: *Sixth.*

A. The Lesson Analyzed.

I. Aims.

1. The teacher's—

- a. Aim of course: the mastery of all the sixth grade words.
- b. Aim of the lesson; to have the children review thoroughly the words assigned.

2. The pupil's aim: to prepare for the spelling match.

II. Assignment.

1. Here on page 168 we have a summary of all the words which we have spelled for the last thirty-two lessons. You have already had them all before. But do you feel that you can spell them all now? Well, what shall we do about it? Shall we review them? Certainly.

2. Our lesson in review, then, will be all the words in the first line of page 168. We can review many more

words than we can learn well at first. Pronounce these words after me. On second, third and fourth days we shall take the other lines. (New World Speller, page 169). We shall see whether the boys or the girls can outspell. Better get some one to give out the words to you, mark all you miss, concentrate on them until you are sure of them all.

3. No outside words, on first day.
4. As you review them, prepare four lists of words:
 - a. One list containing a silent letter;
 - b. One list containing a double consonant;
 - c. One list containing a double vowel; and
 - d. One list of words made up of two shorter words.
5. We shall divide up into sides and spell our review words in the manner of a spelling match. The side that misses fewest words will win. A word missed several times counts as many words missed as the times it is missed. So review hard, that your side may win. We shall keep the same persons on a side. The side that loses the first day may work hard and win the second day. In fact, I am expecting you to spell so well that we shall have a tie between the sides, with nobody missing a word.

III. Results expected.

1. That the contest motive will stimulate the children to vigorous studying of the review words.
2. That every word may be relearned so as to be spelled correctly in every case hereafter.

IV. Methods.

1. Have two captains choose sides to be continued unchanged for four days; or have the boys and girls spell against each other.
2. Let the sides stand facing each other, not over 8 or 10 feet apart
3. The teacher will skip about in giving the words. She will pronounce each word only *once*, unless some noise may prevent its being heard. The teacher will look slightly in direction of the one to whom the word is given. It may be pronounced once more, when passed to the other side.
4. Let the spelling be oral, the pupils standing, on first and third days; and written, the pupils writing at their seats on the second and fourth days.
5. No pupil will sit down, or be ruled out. The side

missing the fewest words will be counted winner.

6. Use missed words on second, third and fourth days, in addition to those assigned.

B. Recitation.

- I. Introduction. We have a set of words to be spelled to-day, which we need to know. There may be about three that may be omitted, clapboard, sweetmeat, tanager. As you study them, you might think whether the words will be of any value to you. But, at any rate, we have had them all, and we are going to review them, so that we may be sure of knowing how to spell them. (Here appoint captains to divide the class, if desired). The classes will remain as divided for four days. The divisions may be boys *vs.* girls; or even *vs.* odds, by numbering; or by actual choosing. I shall let you decide which method of dividing the class you will use.

II. Subject-matter.

Review, page 168, New World Speller.

1. First line of spelling words for first day.

2. a. Second line of spelling words for second day.

- b. Also any words missed the day before.

3. a. Third line of spelling words for third day.

- b. Any words missed the days before.

4. a. Fourth line of spelling words for fourth day.

- b. Any words missed the previous days.

III. Methods in detail.

1. Follow the contest method as described under A, IV.

2. In assigning the lines for second, third, and fourth days appeal for perfect spelling that their sides may win or tie. Include words missed on previous days. Appeal to winning side to stay ahead. Appeal to losing side to come up ahead tomorrow.

3. In pronouncing the words to be spelled, pronounce once only, unless noise or something else interferes with a correct hearing.

4. Permit only one trial at the oral spelling of a word.

5. Count a word correct, if all its letters are called or written in right order,

whether syllables are pronounced or not. (In an ordinary lesson correct syllabication and pronunciation must be required. But not in a spelling match.)

6. Count all words missed against the side missing them. If one word be missed by three pupils on one side and by two on the other, it will score three points against the one side and two points against the other.
7. The side that misses the fewest words wins.

IV. No generalization or summary is called for here. A sufficient rehearsal is provided for in the study and recitation of the lesson.

(These review contests should come once every 10 or 20 days. Let the words be assigned several days in advance for home study. Let the sides be designated previously that they may study industriously to beat the other side.)

LESSON PLAN 3

Subject: *Biographical American History.*

Topic: *Pocahontas.*

Grade: *Fifth.*

Type: *Information.*

A. Lesson Analyzed.

I. Aims.

1. The teacher's—

- a. The aim of the course: to give general knowledge of the makers of American history and to develop a greater love for the nation.
- b. Aim of the lesson: to teach six facts enumerated in assignment so related to Pocahontas as to make children appreciate her as a maker of both Virginia and the nation.

2. The pupil's aim: to learn the six facts assigned,

and on basis of them to tell whether she was important enough to justify our study of her.

II. Assignment.

1. Tell children that we are going to read about one of the most wonderful women in the history of Virginia. 'Tis true, she was an Indian. Yet she was married to a white man and became the ancestress of people now living in Virginia. She was an ancestress of Mrs. Woodrow Wilson. Many societies are named for her. But I am wondering, after all, if she was important enough to be studied about in history.
2. Read Chapter V of our text book. In this find out six things:

(Write on board previously)

- a. How she showed her friendship for the English;
- b. How she was captured;
- c. The story of her marriage;
- d. How her marriage led to peace with the Indians;
- e. How she was received in London;
- f. The story of her death; and
- g. Whether she was important enough to justify our study of her now.

What is our assignment, now?

III. Results expected. That the children will know:

1. How Pocahontas showed friendship for the English;
2. The story of her capture;
3. The story of her marriage;
4. How her marriage led to peace;
5. How she was received in London; and
6. The story of her death.

A proper appreciation of Pocahontas should also be expected to be established.

IV. Methods by which to accomplish these results:

1. Review just a little the difficulties of settling Jamestown, especially the three disasters mentioned on page 49 of text.

Authority not recognized.

Indian hostility.

Provisions exhausted.

2. Have on board previously written the six points in the assignment.
3. Call on individual pupils to tell about each.
4. After each recites, fill in with smaller questions to bring out the points omitted.
5. Avoid telling matters in the book which you can bring out through their reports and by questions.
6. After the facts of a topic are reported, ask a question in relative values about it, which may be discussed by two or three pupils, as to their bearing on Pocahontas as worthy of our study.
7. When the six points are covered, briefly summarize by having one pupil tell the whole story, and another tell how valuable Pocahontas was to the English. Develop by discussion.

B. Recitation.

I. Introduction.

1. Rehearse the material of assignment.
2. Review difficulties of settling Jamestown.

II. Subject-matter.

Pocahontas.

1. How Pocahontas showed friendship for English.

2. Her capture.

- a. How done.
- b. Rightness of it.
- c. Ransom.

3. Her marriage.

- a. Rolfe.
- b. Christian.
- c. Whether happy.

4. How it led to peace.

III. Methods in detail.

1. Have a pupil tell all the ways that she showed friendship to English. Follow small questions to elude important details. Was she really an untrained savage, if she could do such good? Call several.

2. Have another tell whole story of her capture. Was it right? Why?

3. Have a pupil tell about it. Have others discuss which was worse, Powhatan or Argall.

4. Have one tell how it led to peace.

5. How she was received by the English.
6. Her death.
 - a. How old.
 - b. What became of her son.
 - c. How now related.
5. Have one tell how Pocahontas was received in London. (Pocahontas and Mrs. Wilson were the only American women received in London with rank of queen or princess.) Why such attention to Pocahontas?
6. Have one tell the story of her death. Ask other questions to bring out important details.
7. Now, was Pocahontas a real maker of American history? Have lively discussion by several.

IV. Summary. Ask the following:

1. How, then, did Pocahontas show friendship for English?
2. Tell story of her capture.
3. Tell story of her marriage.
4. How did it lead to peace?
5. What country did she visit; how was she received; and why?
6. Tell story of the death.
7. Ask what they think of Pocahontas as a character, Let several express opinions, giving "why" in each case.

LESSON PLAN 4

Subject: *History of United States.*

Topic: *The Final Issue Between the French and English in America.*

Type: *Information.*

Grade: *Seventh.*

A. Lesson Analyzed.

I. Aims.

1. The teacher's—

- a. Aim of course: to give a general elementary knowledge of United States history;

b. Aim of the lesson: to teach the steps leading to the fall of French power in America.

2. The pupil's aim: to determine how each topic studied bears on the final issue between these two countries.

II. Assignment.

1. "Children, in our studies thus far we have seen that the moving of the English colonists over the mountains westward and the moving of the French colonists southward from the Great Lakes soon brought these peoples face to face with each other. As they did so, each regarded the other as trespassers on the lands. Both peoples believed themselves the rightful holders of the lands just west of the mountains here. Two little wars have now already been fought between these two sets of colonists, largely because of differences in Europe. So the exploration and settlement of the lands here just west of the mountains by the French and English must of necessity soon bring them into conflict with each other. When this shall come to pass, what will surely happen? (War.) Yes, and in this lesson the issue is fought out to a finish."
2. "Your lesson will be Chapter XXXIII of your text. While the chapter is not so worded, we have here the final issue between France and England fought out over their western lands.
3. "As you shall read the topics of your chapter, you will note certain steps leading directly to the downfall of one of these powers in America. Which power? What are those steps? As you read each topic ask yourself, and be ready to tell the class, just what bearing each of these topics was having in settling the final issue between these peoples here. Is the assignment clear to all of you? To be sure of it, will you kindly tell the class what you think it is, William?"

III. Results expected. That the children will know:

1. That constant campaigns were in progress to expel the French from America; but failed;
2. That the first definite step in this direction was the expulsion of the Acadians;
3. That Wolfe made possible the defeat of French by moving against the French all along the line from Virginia to St. Lawrence;
4. The story of the Battle of Quebec; and
5. What resulted from the war.

IV. Methods by which to get these results.

1. Assign lesson so as to build up in children's minds the fact of a final issue between France and England.
2. Have pupils recite or report on the five topics in their relation to this final issue.
3. Rehearse rapidly the five topics listed.
4. Have them discuss in connection with each topic its relation to this final issue.
5. Sum up the chief facts on the lesson.

B. Recitation.

- I. Introduction: Rehearse main facts of assignment, endeavoring to deepen the children's appreciation of the final issue at stake, following after Braddock's defeat.

II. Subject-matter. II. Methods in detail.

The Final Issue Between France and England.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. Other campaigns. | 1. Let a pupil <i>tell</i> the facts of "other campaigns," their results and why. What effect upon the final issue? |
| 2. The Acadian exiles. | 2. What are exiles? Have a pupil report the facts. Where expelled to? Why? What effect on final issue? |
| a. Locate. | |
| 3. Pitt's plans. | 3. Let some pupil report these plans. Supplement with questions to draw out omitted points. Locate these places on the maps. What effect does this have on the final issue? |
| a. His purposes. | |
| b. Reasons for these. | |
| c. Removal of old general. | |
| d. Appointment of Wolfe. | |
| e. A general move against the French. | |
| f. Towns first taken: Louisburg, Fort Du Quesne, Niagara. | |
| 4. The event that closed the war: Fall of | 4. Let some pupil report the facts. |

Quebec.

- a. Pitt's wishes.
- b. Wolfe's strategy.
- c. Size of armies.
- d. How the battle closed.
 - (1) Leaders.
 - (2) Armies.

- a. Why Quebec.
- b. How Wolfe got in good position.
- c. What results? (See next question.)

- 5. What resulted.
 - a. Struggle ended.
 - b. England got Florida from Spain and Canada from France.
 - c. Spain got all west of Mississippi.

- 5. Let a pupil tell the results. Write them on the board.

IV. Summary. Ask single questions to get the following responses:

- 1. Campaigns were in progress all along, but failed for English.
- 2. That the first definite step was in the expulsion of the Acadians.
- 3. That Wolfe first began to push to success English efforts to dislodge the French.
- 4. That the English finally won in Quebec.
- 5. That, as a result of this war, England gained Florida and Canada; and that Spain lost Florida but gained Louisiana.

LESSON PLAN 5

Subject: *Elementary Grammar.*

Topic: *Nouns.*

Grade: *Fourth.*

Type: *Inductive-Deductive.*

A. The Lesson Analyzed.

I. Aims.

- 1. The teacher's—
 - a. Aim of the course: to teach children correct use of language, and to teach only enough grammar to give an intelligent use of terms.

- b. Aim of the lesson: to teach the meaning of noun.
2. The pupils' aim: to learn the meaning of noun, so they will be able to recognize it.

II. Assignment.

This lesson should not be assigned for home study.

III. Results expected. I have a reasonable right to expect that these children will have learned from this study that a noun is the name of a person, place or thing.

IV. Methods by which to accomplish these results.

1. Introduce the lesson by telling the children how advantageous it will be to them further on if they shall have learned some grammar, and ask them how many would like to learn it.
2. I shall take some examples containing nouns and ask them to find all the words that are names.
3. I shall then tell them that such are nouns.
4. I shall have them, then, search for nouns.
5. I shall ask them to tell me what they think a noun is.
6. I shall have them search for nouns that are
names of persons;
names of places;
names of things.
7. When a sufficient number shall have been collected, I shall have them discuss a revised definition of a noun.
8. I shall assign for seat work that they write a list of
twenty names of places;
twenty names of persons;
twenty names of things—and then write their definition of a noun. (This will be for the second recitation.)

B. Recitation.

- I. Introduction: "Children, you have been doing very nicely in your language study lately. When you get further on in your language, you will need to know some grammar, so that you may know what we are talking about, in trying to speak and write really correct English. Of course, many people think grammar is only for big people; but I believe that you are already big enough to learn some grammar now. How many of you would like to try to learn some grammar? There are some words used in grammar that we need to learn. We shall take one of them today."

II. Subject-matter.

Nouns.

1. Examples of nouns in list of sentences on board.

a. Charles went to town.

b. Corn grows in the field.

c. Boys like to play ball.

d. Flowers grow in the garden.

e. Mary lives in Pittsburgh.

2. Examples of nouns in the children's reader, to be listed on the board by teacher.

watch water

eye swan

Mary Richmond

3. "A noun is a name."

III. Methods in detail.

1. Look at the first sentence on the board; find all the words that are names. (The words are not underscored on board.)

a. What is the first word that is a name? The second one? I shall put a line under those words that are names. You tell me under which words to put the lines. How many of you think all those words are names? Hold up your hands.

2. Take your readers (1, 2, 3, 4), and turn to page 20. In the first paragraph, find all the words that you can which are names. As fast as you find them, tell me and I shall write them on the board, one at a time. (List completed.)

3. Now all these names mean something in grammar. How many of you would like to know what it is? Well, each one of these words is a noun. Yes, a noun, n-o-u-n (writing it on the board). Now, if I should ask you what is a noun, could you tell me?

You can? Try it, Mary.
Good. Try it, William.
Fine. You, Martin, All
of you say it.

4. Types of nouns.

a. Persons.

e. g., Marvin,
Stella, Professor
Jones, Mrs.
Maynes.

“A noun is a
word used as a
name of a per-
son.”

b. Places.

e. g., Boston,
Maine, Concord,
Radford, Salem,
Providence, Mont-
pelier.

“A noun is a
word used as a
name of a place.”

c. Things.

4. Look on page 44. Do
not find all the

a. Nouns. Just find those

which are names of
persons in the first
paragraph. What are
they? (Puts on
board). Do you think
they are nouns? What
did you say a noun is?
These names are
names of _____

(persons). Change
the wording of the
definition a little to
include these names,
then.

b. Put away your read-

ers (5, 6.) Take
your geographies (1,
2, 3, 4). Open to
page 24. We have
there been studying
the New England
states. Give me six
names of *places*
(writes on board).

What is the name of
our town, here, where
we live (Radford).
What did you say a
noun is? What did
you say up here?
How can we word our
definition now so that
it will include this
last list of names?

c. There on the same
page, find the names

e.g., shoes, books,
ice, watches, ma-
chines water,
ships.

“A noun is a
word used as a
name of a thing.”

of some *things* men-
tioned in the second
paragraph. If these
are names, are they
nouns, too? Names of
what? How can we
word our definition
so that it will include
“things”?

5. Revised definition of the noun: “A noun is a word used as the name of a person, place or thing.”

5. Can we word our definition so as to include all these kinds of names at one time? How? (Have discussion). Who will volunteer to do it?

IV. Summary, or rehearsal. Have several recite the revised definition; then all in concert, to be sure that they have it summed up in their own minds.

- V. Assignment of the next lesson (wholly deductive): For seat work, I shall ask you to make three lists of nouns. Could you guess what the three lists will be? Yes, in one list, have twenty names of persons; take persons known to you. In the second list have twenty names of places; take places known to you. In the third list, what will you have? Yes, twenty names of things. How will you head your lists? (Nouns.)

After you have done this, write out the correct definition of a noun. (This will constitute the lesson for the second day.)

LESSON PLAN 6

Subject: *Language.*

Topic: *Letter-writing.*

Grade: *Seventh.*

Type: *Review and expository.* •

A. Lesson Analyzed.

I. Aims.

1. The teacher's—

- a. Aim of the course: to help the children in the mastery of good English form both in writing and in speaking.

- b. Aim of this lesson, which may run through several recitations: to help the children get definitely the form of a good letter.
2. The pupils' aim: to master the form of a letter well enough to be able to write a convincing letter to the school board asking for a library for their room.

II. Assignment.

1. "In our work here we are often handicapped, because we do not have sufficient books which we may consult in our studies. It would help us much, if we had some extra books of our very own in history, in geography and in classics. How would you like to have a little library for our own room? It might be that, if we wrote a nice, well-composed letter to the school board, setting forth our needs and the reason for them, the board might give us such a library for our room. What do you children think of that? (Let several express their opinions). As the board is composed of very careful business men, it would probably be influenced by the correctness of the letter written and the goodness of the reasons set forth. In taking such a step, what would probably be the first step to take? (Try to develop the expression by the children of a *need* to study letter-writing for this.)
"Of course, you have had letter-writing several times before in previous grades, but it might be worth while to study it now carefully enough to master thoroughly all its elements, so that we might never have to study it again. If so, you would be able to write a very good letter to the board about the library. What do you say to that?"
2. "For your home work, then, it would be well for you to take your text book and read pages 368-377. This reading will give you several sample letters and also a careful explanation of the parts of the letters."
3. "It would be well to ask your fathers and mothers to lend you two or three letters that you may study their forms. You need not bring them to school, as they might contain private information which your father and mother would not like for others to know about. You examine the form of these letters very carefully."
4. "Now, as you have studied letters some before, there is

nothing, I think, that will give you any special difficulty."

5. "Now, if we are really to master letter-writing this time so that it will be ours for the rest of our lives, it might be well for us to learn the following things:
 - a. What are the different kinds of letters;
 - b. What are the different necessary parts of letters;
 - c. How to punctuate the different parts; and
 - d. How to compose a letter for such a purpose as ours. Can we do these four things? How many will try to be able to do them tomorrow?"

III. Results expected. I shall expect these seventh-grade children, knowing them as I do, to be able, every one of them—

1. To explain the three kinds of letters mentioned in the text;
2. To explain the parts of each kind of letter;
3. To go to the board and show how to punctuate each part of the letter form. As to the fourth part of the problem, I shall expect them
4. Not to do very much. That part will have to be developed by discussion.

IV. Methods by which to accomplish these results. When I shall take charge of the class, I shall do the following things:

1. I shall ask them to state the purpose of our giving such careful study to letter-writing at this time, calling on individuals.
2. I shall call for an explanation of the different kinds of letters possible, bringing out the fact that letters are named in terms of the purposes for which they are written. What sort will ours be?
3. With the books open, I shall ask the children to explain what are the necessary parts to letters, letting each of several children name consecutively the parts of a separate letter for each individual.
4. Next we shall observe how each of the formal parts is usually punctuated.
5. After reviewing this very thoroughly, which may take all the first period for this sort of study, we shall then take up the method of composing a good letter.
6. Last, assignment will be made for each member of the class to write a letter to be later read and criticized by members of the class. If one shall be good

enough to be sent, it will be chosen for that purpose. If not, the class, in committee of the whole, under the direction of the teacher, will prepare the letter to be sent.

B. Recitation.

I. Introduction.

1. Have one state the problem for to-day. Call for a discussion of the values of good careful letter-writing, trying to have the children enter on the study of the lesson with a feeling of the worthwhileness of this project.

II. Subject-matter.

Letter-writing.

1. Kinds of letters.

- a. Social letters.
- b. Notes.
- c. Business letters.
- d. Letters of application.

III. Methods in detail.

1. Let one child explain all the kinds of letters, if possible. Have the others listen, and ask the one doing the explaining questions, or offer further explanations themselves. Bring out the true characteristics of each kind. Then, have several children name the type of letter ours will be, giving reasons. Let them argue it, if they can.

2. Parts of letters.

a. Heading.

- 1) Place.
- 2) Date.
- 3) How written.
- 4) How punctuated.

b. Salutation.

- 1) How written and placed.
- 2) How punctuated.
- 3) Use of capitals.

2. a. Let the children open their books to the sample letters given. Have them, one after the other, point out the parts of the letter.

- b. Send some to the board, and let others at seats write the parts of letters except filling body, as a test of their understanding of these parts. If necessary, let this be re-

peated several times.
They may check each other up; if questions arise, they may consult book.

c. Body-outline.

c. Check up both the arrangement of the form and the punctuation.

d. Conclusion.

- 1) Complimentary.
- 2) Signature.
- 3) How punctuated.
- 4) Use of capitals.

d. If the work has been satisfactory, you may pass now to a study of the method of composing your letter. If not, still another recitation may be had on this formal part of the letter.

e. Superscription

- 1) Where written and how placed.
- 2) Name and address.
- 3) Punctuation.

e. Make a study of practices in good business offices.

3. Our letter.

a. Kind.

3. What sort of letter will ours be? Let them discuss this some, giving reasons.

4. Points to be made in the body of our letter.

- a. Need for supplementary books in history; geography; classics.

4. In order to make a good impression on the board, what ought we to say in our letter? What points ought we to make? Ought each point to be written up as a paragraph? Through discussion, try

- b. How they could be used.
 - 1) In connection with other subjects.
 - 2) For general reading.
 - c. Willingness of the children to make a proper use of them.
 - 1) Book case.
 - 2) Book care.
 - d. Petition for the provision of small room library of properly selected books.
- to develop an outline for the body of the letter somewhat similar to this one. After the outline shall have been agreed upon let the letter be assigned as a lesson for tomorrow.

IV. Summary.

1. What kinds of letters are there? What is the purpose of each kind? What kind is ours? Why?
2. What are the necessary parts of a good letter? Call on one to tell the class how each one is written and punctuated.
3. Have the children take down the points to be made in their letter to be written and brought to class tomorrow.

V. Assignment for tomorrow.

“How anxious are you all that we shall really get our library? How many of you are going to do your level best in writing this letter? Each of you try to win the honor of having your letter selected by the class to be sent to the board. While you will want to write as neatly as possible, penmanship will not be counted. We shall have the member of the class that writes the neatest and best hand copy the letter chosen. Then all of you will sign it. I am counting on each of you to write a good letter, one that the board will really like. Do not get help from others. Let this be your own job.”

LESSON PLAN 7

Subject: *Geography* (using both text books and supplementary books).

Topic: *A Section* (Middle Atlantic States).

Type: *Inductive-Information.*

Grade: *Fifth.*

A. The Lesson Analyzed.

I. Aims.

1. The teacher's—

a. Aim of the course for the fifth grade: to give the children an elementary knowledge of the sections of the United States and of the continents.

b. Aim of this lesson: to teach the elementary geography of the Middle Atlantic States.

2. The pupils' aim: to ascertain what makes the Middle Atlantic States such a desirable section in which to live.

II. Assignment.

1. "We have just finished our study of the New England States. This was an interesting study, because while the section is small in size, it has a very large population. Half of the people there are engaged in manufacturing. But we come now to a section which is the most populous of all the sections of our country. The largest city of the nation is there. The capital of the nation is there. It seems such a desirable place in which to live. This section we call the Middle Atlantic States (showing map), because it is located between the New England States and the Southern States here next to the Atlantic Ocean. How would you like to study and see what are the conditions that made the Middle Atlantic States such a fine section in which to live? Very well, I think we shall enjoy this study very much.

2. "Our lesson for the next two or three days will be found in the following books:

a. Brigham and McFarlane's *Essentials of Geography*, First Book, pp. 98-107;

b. Dodge's *Elementary Geography*, pp. 89-101;

c. Tarr and McMurry's *World Geographies*, First Book, pp. 108-120.

3. "In our supplementary geography books, we can find

out much more about this very interesting section of our country. I shall ask some of you to read for us the following special assignments in the books of our room library. You will take careful notes and be ready to report to class tomorrow what your books may have had on the topics which we shall be discussing.

- a. Maud Long, read Carroll's *Around the World*, pp. 47-52, in Book IV.
- b. Sue Hurt, read Carroll's *Around the World*, pp. 229-235, in Book IV.
- c. Effie Jackson, read Carroll's *Around the World*, pp. 236-240, in Book IV.
- d. Eva Parr, read Carroll's *Around the World*, pp. 241-245, in Book IV.
- e. Mary Strouth: Carroll's *Around the World*, pp. 53-57, in Book IV.
- f. Helen Albert: Carroll's *Around the World*, pp. 57-62, in Book IV.
- g. Walter Parson: Carpenter's *North America*, pp. 17-26.
- h. Arthur Roberts: Carpenter's *North America*, pp. 27-35.
- i. Henry Anderson: Carpenter's *North America*, pp. 212-220.
- j. Carl Thornburg: Winslow's *United States*, pp. 37-42.
- k. Herbert Yow: Winslow's *United States*, pp. 45-51.
- l. Battie Bache: Winslow's *United States*, pp. 57-63.
- m. Bill Gains: Winslow's *United States*, pp. 64-70."
4. "When you shall come to learn the States, I suggest that you learn them from the map rather than from the list printed in the books. Take them just in the order in which they come."
5. "In our study of New England, we found that it was desirable to learn what things about a section, to be able to understand it well?" (As the children enumerate them, write them on the board, as below):
 - a. States and capitals.
 - b. Location.
 - c. Size, in area and population.
 - d. Surface and soils.
 - e. Drainage.
 - f. Climate.
 - g. Industries and occupations.

h. Special features.

- 1) Scenery.
- 2) Cities.
- 3) Others.

6. "As we shall study our section, we shall ask ourselves what each has to do with making this section such a desirable place in which to live."

III. Results expected. I shall expect the children to know, at the conclusion of the series of recitations on this section, the following:

1. The names of the States and the capitals;
2. The location of the section with reference to other sections, the ocean, and the country as a whole;
3. In round numbers the number of square miles in this section, and the population;
4. The general character of the surface and the soils of this section;
5. The chief rivers which drain it, their sources, their direction, into what they flow, and what section each drains;
6. The general character of the climate, as compared with the climate of the section in which they live;
7. The chief occupations and their relative importance; and
8. The features peculiar to this section.

IV. Methods by which to accomplish these results. When I shall take charge of the class, I shall do the following things:

1. I shall call on a pupil to state the problem for today. I shall then have some discussion as to how important the children think this section is, without special reference to the assignment, to get their attitude right.
2. I shall pull down my wall map so that the children may see it, and have them name the States and capitals, in the order in which they come, beginning with New York.
3. Then, we shall take each one of the points by which to study a section. Individual pupils will be called upon to report the facts. Others will be called upon to supplement them in each case.
4. At the conclusion of reports each time I shall have discussion of that point as to its bearing on our problem.
5. At the conclusion of the recitation each day, I shall

have a summary made up to that point. This summary will be re-stated at the beginning of each succeeding day at the beginning of subsequent recitations until the topic shall be finished.

B. The Recitation.

I. Introduction.

1. "In our study of the New England States, what reasons did we find why it was such a manufacturing section? What eight points did we decide to use by which we should study all the other sections? (Write on board.)
2. "In our study today what points do we wish to determine concerning the Middle Atlantic States?"

II. Subject-matter.

The Middle Atlantic States.

III. Methods of procedure.

(Outline on board, as the study shall develop, the subject-matter.)

1. States and capitals.

- a. Name from the map; then memorize.
- b. Located singly.

1. Have the children, with books open, learn the States as they come on the map, so that the directions and relations from each other may be *seen*, as well as memorized. After learning the States and capitals, "Do the names of States have anything to do with making a section desirable for residence?" Discuss.

2. Location.

- a. In east United States.
- b. Between New England and Southern States.
- c. Along coast, nearly.
- d. Location favorable for residence:
 - 1) Ease of entrance.

2. On a map of the United States have this section located, as to place in United States, with reference to other sections; oceans, etc. "Does location have anything to do with making a place desirable for living?" "How does location make this section fine for residence?" Discuss.

- 2) Ease of connection with other sections.
 - 3) Ocean, rivers, railways convenient.
 - 4) New York City, gateway to continent.
 - 5) Near to capital of Nation.
3. Size.
- a. In area.
 - b. In population.
 - c. Search for reasons for so many more people here than is proportionate for country as a whole.
3. Have the children look in their reference tables in the back of their books and ascertain in round numbers the number of square miles in these states. Divide the area of the United States by that of the sum of the areas of these given states, to get how many times larger the whole United States is than this section, or inversely to get the part of the United States included in this section. Do the same thing for the population. (Part of the arithmetic lesson for the day. How many people to the square mile? How many per square mile in the United States?)
4. Surface and soils.
- a. The coastal plain.
 - b. The Piedmont Belt.
 - c. The Appalachian Mountains.
4. Turn to the relief map and have the surface described. After getting the description, have a good discussion of advantages derived from its

- 1) Hudson Water Gap.
 - 2) Susquehanna Valley.
 - d. The Great Valley.
 - 1) In New York.
 - 2) In Pennsylvania.
 - 3) In Virginia.
 - e. Allegheny Plateau.
5. Drainage.
- a. Rivers: Hudson, Mohawk, Delaware, Susquehanna, Potomac, James.
 - b. Sources.
 - c. Directions.
 - d. Mouths.
 - e. Sections drained by each.
6. Climate.
- a. Prevailing winds.
 - b. Rainfall.
 - c. Temperature, range.
 - d. Conditions which affect climate:
 - 1) Distance from equator;
 - 2) Altitude;
 - 3) Prevailing winds;
 - 4) Ocean currents;
 - 5) Whether

surface. Good reports should be had here from the children both from their text-books and from their special assignments.

Along with the description of the surface, have a description made of the soils by reports from special assignments. How does the soil affect the desirability for homes? Could these people really live by themselves, should they become suddenly shut off from all the world?

5. On their maps have located the six rivers of this section; indicate the source, mouth and direction of each. Indicate, also, the section drained by each.

How does the drainage affect the desirability for the rivers and their residence? Have special reports and discussion of values.

6. Have the children turn in their text-books to their wind maps, their rainfall maps, and their temperature maps. What conditions affect climate? What ought to be the climate here? What variations in climate are really found? Have some special reports on climate from the supplementary books. Discuss: Does cli-

winds blow
from land or
water.

mate really make any difference as to the desirability of a place in which one lives? How? Does the climate here induce people to come or make no difference?

7. Industries and occupations.

a. Agriculture:

1) In what parts;

2) What crops in each part;

b. Manufacturing:

1) In what places;

2) Products;

3) Reasons;

4) Values.

c. Dairying:

1) Places;

2) Markets.

d. Fishing:

1) Places;

2) Kinds of fish.

e. Mining:

1) Location;

2) Minerals.

f. Commerce:

1) Railroads;

2) Lakes;

3) Canals;

4) Ocean.

8. Special features.

a. Large cities.

b. Gateway to continent.

c. Capital of Nation.

d. New York City.

7. Have a number of reports concerning this topic, both from the texts and from the special assignments. Have reports as to the values of these several occupations, the products in each case, the importance of the occupation in products and in number of people employed. Have the location of the occupations made and the reasons. The chief questions are: How important is each occupation here? What does all that have to do with the presence of so many people here in this section?

Consult the products maps much.

8. Have reports from the special assignments about those things that are peculiar or striking in this section. More of these are found in sup-

- e. Niagara Falls.
- f. Travel.
- g. Scenery, etc.

plementary books than in the regular texts.

Do these have anything to do with the desirability of this section in which to live? Why?

IV. Summary.

1. Review rapidly the chief points made in this lesson, letting the children retain the same eight points by which to study other sections.
2. Let the reasons why this section is especially desirable to live in be stated in the form of short sentences, which should be written on the board.
3. Let the children discuss, of all the reasons, which they think is most important—giving their reason for so thinking.
4. Let them also discuss whether this section is likely to become more populous or less so; giving their reasons and naming the sections from which people will likely come, or to which they may go.

LESSON PLAN 8

Subject: *Geography.*

Topic: *Europe.*

Type: *Information.*

Grade: *Seventh.*

A. The Lesson Analyzed.

I. Aim.

1. The teacher's—

- a. Aim of course: to study in a comparative way the foreign continents.
 - b. Aim of lesson: to teach the ten important facts of Europe.
- ##### 2. Aim of pupils: to learn ten important facts of Europe, and to compare them with similar facts in the Americas.

II. Assignment.

1. "Europe is the smallest continent, but one. But to us it is most important, outside of our own. It was the home of the white people. Our ancestors came from the countries of Europe. We sell most of our foreign goods in Europe. So it is of particu-

lar importance that we know a great deal about the countries of Europe. We shall give more time to studying it because of its importance."

2. "For the next three days we shall study, in our book, pages 145 down to near bottom of page 153. Do we get the book assignment right? What is it now?" (Call on a pupil to give it.)
3. (No outside assignment.)
4. "You may run across some words or names difficult to pronounce. Make a list of the hard ones, so we may learn the proper pronunciation of them."
5. "There are ten points we want to learn about Europe (put the list on the board): (1) Size, (2) location, (3) coast line, (4) surface, (5) drainage, (6) climate, (7) vegetation, (8) animals, (9) people, (10) countries and capitals."
6. "Problem: In respect to each point, which is the better continent, Europe or America? Did our ancestors do well to come here? Why?"

III. Results expected. That the children will know:

1. That Europe in size is the smallest, but one, of the continents, naming them in the order of size;
2. That it is located north of Equator, west of Asia, north of Africa, east of Atlantic Ocean;
3. That its coast line is largest in proportion to size of all continents and most jagged, thus making possible good harbors;
4. The facts of:
 - a. Primary highland in south, and
 - b. Secondary highland in north;
 - c Central plain;
5. That it is drained chiefly by the Rhine, Volga, Danube, Dnieper and Seine Rivers;
6. That its climate is somewhat milder than in corresponding latitudes of America, but still far enough north for most of it to be cold; though mild, in southern Europe;
7. That its chief plants are grain plants, fruit plants, soft woods, hard woods and mulberry;
8. That its animals are sheep, goats, chamois, cows, buffaloes, ibex, horses, bears, wolves, reindeer, polar bears, seals, eider ducks, elks;
9. That its people are mostly white, some yellow people, (five times as many as in United States);

10. That the people have divided Europe into the following countries, with capitals as follows:

Portugal—Lisbon

Spain—Madrid

France—Paris

British Isles—London

Italy—Rome

Switzerland—Bern

Germany—Berlin

Belgium—Brussels

Netherlands—The Hague

Denmark—Copenhagen

Norway—Oslo.

Sweden—Stockholm

Russia—Petrograd

Austria—Vienna

Hungary—Budapest

Poland—Warsaw

Jugo-Slovakia—Belgrade

(Serbia, Montenegro, Albania, parts of Hungary)

Greece—Athens

Bulgaria—Sofia

Rumania—Bucharest

- IV. Methods. After taking charge of class, I shall do the following:

1. Speak again of the importance of Europe.
2. Ask if there are any words needing to be pronounced.
3. Get, by questions, on the board the ten points about Europe.
4. As each is recited or discussed, I shall have them compared with corresponding points of North America and South America.
5. I shall ask large questions, to be supplemented by smaller ones, if needed. At the beginning of another lesson, sum up work of preceding days. Let a pupil tell all about a whole topic.
6. I shall, after getting through, have the children sum up quickly the ten points of a continent, as true of Europe.

B. The Recitation.

- I. Rehearse here about what was said in assignment, to get the proper attitude on the part of pupils. Tell how to pronounce any words. Close this introduction

by getting on board the ten points to be learned about the continent.

II. Subject-matter.

Europe.

1. Size.

- a. As compared with other continents.
- b. In square miles (in round numbers).
- c. In people.

2. Position.

- a. With reference to equator.
- b. In hemispheres.
- c. With reference to oceans.
- d. Latitude and longitude.
- e. Compared with United States in position.

3. Coast-line.

- a. Character.
- b. Length.
- c. Advantages.
- d. Disadvantages.

4. Surface.

- a. Primary highland.

III. Methods in detail.

1. What is size of Europe as compared with other continents? Name them in order of size. How many square miles? How many people? How does its people compare with those of other continents? Its area? Its population?

2. Where is Europe, with reference to equator? Hemisphere? Oceans? Latitude? Longitude? Which has better position, Europe or United States? Why?

3. Describe Europe's coast-line.

- a. Which has the better coast-line, Europe, or United States? Why?
- b. Which has the longer?
- c. Which has more advantages? Why?
- d. Which has more disadvantages? Why?

4. Describe the surface of Europe.

- a. Locate its primary highland.

- 1) Extends from where to where?

- 2) Compare its direction with that in North America and in
 - 3) South America.
 - 4) Find on map ranges that make it up.
 - 5) Crossing what continents.
 - b. Secondary highland.
 - b. Locate its secondary highland.
 - 1) Compare its direction with that in North America and South America.
 - 2) Compare its location also.
 - c. Central plain.
 - c. Locate the lowlands.
 - 1) What is its direction?
 - 2) Compare with Great Central Plain, in
 - a) Size.
 - b) Direction.
 - c) Importance.
- 5. Drainage.
 - a. Rhine, Dnieper.
 - b. Rhone, Seine.
 - c. Danube, Volga.
- 5. Look at map and pick out chief rivers.
 - a. What section does each drain?
 - b. Compare with rivers in North America in size, length, importance.
- 6. Climate.
 - a. In western Europe.
 - b. In southern Europe.
- 6. Describe the climate of
 - a. Europe in its four sections, each section separately.
 - b. How does each section compare with sections in North America?

- c. In middle Europe.
 - d. In northern Europe.
 - e. Rainfall.
(Climate depends on
latitude
altitude
ocean currents
prevailing winds
distance from water.)
- c. How do these sections compare in location?
 - d. Describe the rainfalls.
Account for heavy rainfall in west.
 - e. Upon what does climate depend?
-
- 7. Vegetation.
 - a. Grains.
 - b. Grapes and currants.
 - c. Beets.
 - d. Fruits.
 - e. Tobacco.
 - f. Flax.
 - g. Woods.
 - 1) Soft.
 - 2) Hard.
 - h. Grass.
 - i. Mulberry.
(Vegetation depends upon surface or soils and climate.)
 - 7. Concerning the plant life of Europe.
 - a. Name all the kinds of plants possible.
 - b. Locate them.
 - c. Compare them with plants grown in
 - 1) North America
 - 2) South America
 - d. How valuable is each type of plant?
 - e. Upon what does vegetation depend?
-
- 8. Animal life.
 - 8. Concerning the animal life of Europe.

a. Like those in North America.

b. Domestic animals.

c. Reindeer, elks.

d. Fur-bearing animals.

e. Chamois and ibex.

f. Buffalo, bear, wolf.

g. Seal, polar bear, eider ducks.

h. Animal life depends upon plant life and climate.

a. How do the animals compare with those of North America?

b. Which are alike?

c. Which are different?

d. Upon what does animal life depend?

9. People.

a. Races.

b. Number.

c. Kind of government.

d. Religion.

e. Language.

g. People depend upon:

1) Animals 5) Drainage

2) Plants 6) Coastline

3) Climate 7) Location

4) Surface 8) Size of continent.

10. Countries and capitals.

a. Old countries.

b. New countries.

9. Describe the people of Europe.

a. To what races do they belong?

b. How many?

c. What kinds of government?

d. What religions among them?

e. What languages do they speak? How many?

f. Compare them with those in U. S. in each topic.

g. Upon what do people depend?

10. Look at map. Let countries be named and learned on map, so as to get relative locations.

a. Get the old countries named with their capitals.

b. Get the new ones also in the same way.

c. The 20 chief cities.

c. Have children draw a mark around the new countries.

d. Have them find the 20 probably most important cities with their locations.

IV. Sum up with questions to get quickly the answers enumerated under "Results expected".

LESSON PLAN 9

Subject: *Arithmetic.*

Topic: *Multiplication by Two-Place Numbers.*

Grade: *Third.*

Type: *Practice.*

A. The Lesson Analyzed.

I. Aims.

1. The teacher's—

a. Aim of the course in this topic for the year: to have the children acquire ability to multiply four-place numbers by two-place numbers, doing three such examples correctly in six minutes.

b. Aim of the lesson: to practice the eighth line of the multiplication, in preparation for a test.

2. The pupils' aim: to practice hard, with a view to coming nearer the year's score than they did last week.

II. Assignment.

1. "Children, at the conclusion of the last test, you recall that the average score of the class was just a little nearer the June score than it had ever been. You recall also that, as most of the errors were made in using the number combinations involving multiplying by 8, you said that you thought that you ought to concentrate on the eighth line to learn it once and for all. Shall we do that to-night in our home work? Let us practice it hard, then, saying it forward, backward, skipping about, till we just know it and can use it quickly. If you do this well, I am sure we shall soon come very close to the score for our grade. Some of you are nearly up to it right now. I shall be glad to see you go across."

III. Results expected. I shall expect that the children will, as a result of this study—

1. Make a marked improvement in the average score;
2. Become more interested in achieving their class score;
3. Achieve a much higher efficiency, because of using the standard score as a motive for practice.

IV. Methods to be employed in the recitation.

1. Introduce, by holding up again the standard of achievement toward which we are working.
2. Use the following devices during the recitation for practice:
 - a. Have a few children recite the table, seeing who can do it correctly in the fewest seconds;
 - b. Use flash cards with the number combinations on front, and on back, to see how fast the children can give the correct results, one combination on each card;
 - c. Use cards, having the number combinations written along the edges, so that they may write the results on other paper beneath to see how fast they can get them right, in seconds.
 - d. Confine the practice to ten minutes or less.

B. The Recitation.

I. Introduction. What was our average score at last test? What is the standard June score for our grade? How much more shall we have to make to get it? How many of you are already within one example of it? How many want to go over the score before June? What will it take to do it? At last test, what did you feel was your chief weakness? How many of you feel now that you have overcome this weakness? I am hoping that not a single child will today miss a combination in the eighth line of the multiplication table. If so, we ought next week, when we test ourselves, with all the practice we give ourselves on the lower combinations between now and then, to raise our class average very much.

II. Subject-matter.

Eighth Line of the
Multiplication Table.

1. The table as a whole.

III. Methods in detail.

1. Call on three or four individuals to recite the table keeping the time to

see who can do it correctly in the least time. If one makes an error, his score does not count.

2. Combinations on flash cards.

2. Having all the combinations on flash cards, flash them before the class one at a time, in rapid succession to practice the children in recognizing them quickly. Let the children answer individually, as you call their names, at the instant in which you show the card.

3. Combinations on card edges for written work.

3. Use your Fasset cards or any others which you may purchase or make, having the numbers near a margin, so that the children may write the results without having to copy the combinations. Let them race to finish. Keep the time that each child requires to do this in seconds.

IV. Summary. Here, try to generalize any feelings that the children may have as a result of their practice, somewhat as follows:

How about your practice today? How many feel that, if you were tested today, with the Courtis tests, you could come nearer the standard score than when you were tested before? It is now just seven days, till we want to test ourselves again. How shall we spend the time that we have available for practice from now till the time of the test? Shall we have some more practice like the one we had today? Would it be worth while to practice a little alone? Of course, we must not tire ourselves out; but how many minutes a day do you think children may reasonably practice their number combinations, and

not tire themselves too much? How about 5 minutes? Ten minutes, you say? Very well, I am glad you children see the value of practice. Nobody ever does anything very worth while, if he can see no value in it. You might tell me next time what you think the values of practice are.

LESSON PLAN 10

Subject: *Arithmetic.*

Topic: *Finding base, when percentage and rate are given.*

Grade: *Sixth.*

Type: *Inductive-deductive.*

A. The Lesson Analyzed.

I. Aims.

1. The teacher's—

a. Aim of the course: to teach this year decimals, short methods, denominate numbers, how to solve problems, practical measurements, and introduction to percentage, as well as to achieve the efficiency standards in the use of the fundamentals.

b. Aim of the lesson: to teach the children how to find the base when the rate and percentage are given (a three-recitation lesson).

2. The pupils' aim: to learn how to find the base, when the rate percentages are given.

II. Assignment.

1. The first lesson will not be assigned for outside work. The class work of the first lesson may be taken as the main part of the method of assigning, and introducing the work of the second and third recitations.

2. Text assignments for the second and third recitations.

a. Second recitation, problems 10-19, page 258 in the pupils' text.

b. Third recitation, problems 20-29, page 259 in the pupils' text.

3. Difficulties to be cleared up:

a. First day, in assignment for second day: Exs. 10, 13.

b. Second day, for third recitation, Ex. 24.

III. Results expected. I shall expect to get the following results:

1. First day, by reason of teaching the topic directly to the children, they will be able at the close of this

recitation to solve simple problems of the kind given in the sixth grade text.

2. The children will bring in to class, worked out correctly, the ten problems assigned—this on the second day.
3. The children will on the third day bring in the ten problems assigned. Both these days their examples will be worked out on paper, ready to be handed in.

IV. Methods by which to accomplish these results.

1. On the first day I shall teach carefully and inductively the method of solving this type of problems, gradually bringing them up to the point at which they will be able to generalize the method and apply it.
2. I shall assign ten examples for home work, to be done and handed in at the second class; the same sort of assignment for the third class.
3. I shall then have them, at their seats and at the board, solve similar problems taken from other texts.
4. Frequently, but not after every problem explained, I shall have them regeneralize the process, so that it may better be remembered.

B. The Recitation.

I. Introduction.

1. To first recitation.
 - a. Review briefly division of decimals.
 - b. Speak of the value of this process, the finding of the base, when the rate and the percentage are given.
Review also the meaning of the three terms used in percentage.
2. To second recitation.
 - a. Ascertain whether any other difficulties are encountered in solving the problems.
 - b. Take up the written work.
 - c. Talk with the children about what value they see in this kind of work.
3. In third recitation, follow the same procedure as in the second.

II. The Subject matter. III. Methods in detail.

Finding the base, when
the rate and percentage
are given.

1. Introductory material.

a. Division of decimals, including the methods for pointing off.

b. Method of finding a factor, when one other factor and product are given.

1. We have had division of decimals much this year. How do we work an example in decimal long division? Actually work out two or three to review them thoroughly in division of decimals. Let them work two or three for you.

Also take up method of finding one factor, when the other and the product are given, e. g.:

$$2 \times 3 = 6$$

$$6 \div 3 = ?$$

$$6 \div 2 = ?$$

How, then, is one factor found when the product and the other factor are given?

In our previous lessons, we have learned the meaning of base, rate, percentage. What is each one? (Let individuals explain as in any other lesson.)

2. Illustrative material for new work.

2. Take up one at a time the illustrative problems, and work slowly the first one on the board, thus:

<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Rate</i>	<i>Find base</i>
\$ 10	10%	
\$ 10	25%	
\$ 720	12%	
\$ 300	15%	
\$ 690	23%	
\$ 175	25%	
\$ 360	75%	

100

.10) 10.00, or 10.)1000

Let the children now join in and tell you, as far as they can, how to do the work. Carry this far enough for practically all of them to be able to tell you just how to do

the work, as you put it down on the board.

3. Generalization of the process: "The base equals the percentage divided by the rate".

3. What is our rule, then? How shall we write it?

4. Application. Exs.

<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Rate</i>
\$ 84	6%
\$ 75	5%
\$ 88	4%
\$ 480	12.5%

4. Let one child at the board work one example, while the others at their seats work another. After finishing, have the process explained.

Then let all at their seats work two examples.

5. Assignment for the 2nd day.

5. How many of you think that you can work these examples?

Page 258: Exs. 10-19

How many of them can you do in your home work? Suppose we take the examples from 10 to 19. Bring them in neatly worked out on paper, ready to hand in.

- IV. On the second and third days, the teacher will think of her recitations as predominantly deductive, in which the principle derived inductively the first day is being applied in the solution of problems. However, the teacher should determine in advance for each day:

1. What examples she will give the children to work at the board;
2. What examples she will give them to work at their seats;
3. What examples she will herself actually work for them to *show them how* to deal with similar problems. In other words, she will have them selected in advance for the purposes mentioned, or for any other purpose. Also on the second and third days given to this work of this topic, her method will involve something of the following procedure:

4. She will begin each recitation with just a bit of review of the principle which they have been using.
5. She will ascertain whether any problems have given many any trouble. If so, she will take these up and, with the children's help to keep them at work, solve each on the board. If there is a problem that has been troublesome for only two or three, that one may be solved for them privately, after the class is put to work. The problems used in the recitation should for the most part be taken from other text-books, or made up by the teacher, of similar nature and of about the same difficulty.
6. At the close of each day she will have a summary, involving a stating of the rule by which such problems are worked.
(Three days on this one topic are justified to provide for *overlearning*. They will not remember it, unless there is provision for application of what they understand so that they may be practiced in the process to a point considerably above mere understanding.)

LESSON PLAN 11

Subject: *Sanitation.*

Topic: *The Housefly.*

Grade: *Sixth.*

Type: *Information.*

A. The Lesson Analyzed.

I. Aims.

1. The teacher's—

a. Aim of the course: to give the children a good general knowledge of practical hygiene and sanitation.

b. Aim of the lesson: to teach the necessity and methods of getting rid of the housefly.

2. The pupils' aim: to learn why and how to get rid of the housefly.

II. The Assignment.

1. "Children, people in this country used to be afraid of bears, because sometimes a bear would kill a person. They were afraid of the Indians. They were afraid of many things, because of what they thought these things would do to them. But, in our lesson tomorrow, we shall have a study of one of the most dangerous

things with which people ever come in contact. This thing has poisoned more people, causing their deaths, than almost anything that we might study about. And this thing is right here in our midst now; it is going on poisoning people as long as we let it stay here. That thing is nothing but the mean old house-fly."

2. "For tomorrow, suppose that we read the Chapter XXIX in the text book."
3. "There are a few things that I might suggest that you find out from this chapter:
 - a. Are flies useful?
 - b. What sorts of poisons do they carry around with them?
 - c. Ought we to try to get rid of the fly? Why?
 - d. Find out three ways of protecting ourselves against the fly.
 - e. What would you think of a place to live where there were no flies?
 - f. What can we do to get rid of flies?"

III. Results expected. I shall expect the children to learn:

1. That flies are not useful, but dangerous;
2. That disease germs are carried by flies;
3. That there is a necessity of getting rid of the fly;
4. What are the three chief ways of protecting ourselves against the fly; and
5. That a place with no flies would be a very desirable place in which to live.

IV. Methods of accomplishing these results. After taking charge of the class—

1. I shall again speak along the line of the first part of the assignment, to get their interest aroused;
2. I shall take up the problems assigned, call on individuals to discuss them, and call on others to supplement the report, telling not only what they have learned, but what they think about it.
3. I shall have them discuss what they can do to get rid of flies.

B. The Recitation.

I. Introduction.

1. Review just a bit in the previous lesson about the importance of sanitation.
2. Have the children talk about that which they consider

the most dangerous thing in the world: animals, Indians, etc., comparing each with flies.

II. Subject-matter.

The Housefly.

III. Methods in detail.

Encourage the children to talk at length.

1. Its usefulness. (?)
 1. Are flies useful? Sure? Why? How? (It is helpful to make outline on board, as you go along.)
 2. Call on a child to tell all the things that a fly carries on his feet. Let other children supplement this one's report. Have them discuss whether these things are poisonous, how, etc.
 3. Should we try to get rid of the fly? Why? You suppose we can ever get rid of him? How?
 4. Before we get rid of him, how can we protect ourselves from him? Let the children discuss the topic in great detail, so that they may feel very keenly the need to do it.
 2. What it carries on feet.
 3. Reasons for getting rid of flies.
 4. How protect ourselves from him.
 - a. Not throwing out germ - containing matter for flies to find.
 - b. Screening.
 - c. Destroying breeding places.
 5. A town with no flies.
 6. What children can do.
5. If a town could advertise that there are no flies nor mosquitoes there, would it get any people to come and live in it? What sort of people? Why?
 6. What can children do to get rid of flies and help protect people from

them? Let several tell what they can do at home and what they can do at school for this purpose. Let the teacher help carry out the suggestions at school.

IV. Summary.

Have here a review or summary of the use of the points enumerated under subject-matter above. The children should be able to carry away at least four facts about flies that would be very potent in their immediate lives in relation to the fly.

LESSON PLAN 12

Subject: *Civics.*

Topic: *Elections.*

Grade: *Seventh.*

Type: *Expression.*

A. The Lesson Analyzed.

I. The aims.

1. The teacher's—

a. Aim of the course: to have the children learn the elementary methods and appreciate the opportunity to participate in public affairs.

b. Aim of the lesson: to teach the children the method of participating in elections.

2. The pupils' aim: to study the lesson to learn how to elect officers of their class, in the same way that public officers are chosen.

II. Assignment.

1. "You recall that tomorrow is the day that was set for the election of the officers of your class. Some of you desired that we might elect them in school time. I am very glad for you to do this in school time. In fact, you may use the civics period for this very purpose. Since, however, we are going to hold this election in school time, what would you think of our holding the election just as your fathers hold their elections, and vote in the same way that people vote in the regular elections? I am glad you would like to learn how to vote as you will, after you are grown, and vote that way in this election.

2. "For that purpose, suppose you read Chapter IX in your text-book, to learn just how a proper election is held. Then we shall hold our election just that way.
3. "It will not be necessary for you to look up the method anywhere else, though you might talk with your parents about the way they vote, when they go to the polls.
4. "There will be found in the chapter one point of difficulty. That is the matter of qualifications. None of you children are qualified, as our text describes. Of course, you might count forward and see what more you will have to do before you get to the point of voting in the regular elections. To settle this difficulty, we might say that the only qualification we shall require to vote in our election will be just to be a member of the seventh grade.
5. "Then your task will be to find out from your text book just the right way to hold the election."

III. Results expected. I shall expect the children to learn definitely how to participate in an election.

IV. Methods by which to accomplish these results.

1. Assign the chapter in Civics, which explains voting.
2. Have them discuss the best method of nominations, and make nominations in accordance therewith.
3. Have them hold an actual election, with election officers, ticket boxes, and the like. The teacher's roll may be the registration list. The tickets are to be prepared according to the Australian plan and voted accordingly.
4. The tickets will be counted and the results will be declared.
5. The whole lesson will be that of the regular execution of the project-method, the children accomplishing their own purpose through the use of a school exercise.

B. The Recitation.

I. Introduction.

1. Call on one or more to state the purpose of the lesson.
2. Let any who will suggest methods of procedure, involving:
 - a. How to get two tickets nominated;
 - b. The possibility of voting for all on one ticket;
 - c. The method of "splitting" the ticket:

(They might use the names, say, of "Red Rose Party" and "White Rose Party." It would probably not be best to use "Democratic" and "Republican.")

II. Subject-matter. Voting.

1. Those qualified to participate.
2. How get tickets nominated.
3. How get ballots prepared.
4. Officers of the election.
5. Ticket box.
6. Election rules.
7. Voting.
8. Counting ballots.
9. Declaring the results.

III. Methods. As this is to be a real project for the children, and also while the teacher must be responsible that they follow the right execution of the Australian system of election, the children should discuss this freely. In working out this project, it would be well if each problem to be settled might be written on the board, till it is settled, As each problem is settled, it may be written in another place on the board as one of the rules of the election. In case of not knowing, they are to consult the book to be sure.

The problems are probably those listed under subject-matter. They may be more, or fewer. When all the problems shall be settled into rules for conducting the election, then let the election be held in accordance therewith.

It may be that it will take two periods. If so, points 7, 8, 9 may be done in a second period.

The first six problems are attended to in regular elections by officers previously appointed by the proper authorities. The children should understand that, in this case, they are making their own rules. They might be written up and kept for guidance next year.

IV. Summary (if desired).

1. What are the steps involved in holding an election?
2. How are tickets nominated?
3. How are ballots prepared?
4. How does one actually vote, using the Australian ballot?
5. How tell who is elected?

LESSON PLAN 13

Subject: *Reading*.

Topic: *Sweet and Low*. (This selection, subject-matter, questions and suggestions for discussion, were taken verbatim from "Wheeler's Literary Readers, with Interpretations—A Fifth Reader," by special arrangements with the publishers, Wheeler Publishing Co., Chicago. Items A, I, III, IV; B, I, IV, below are added by the author of this text.)

Grade: *Fifth*.

Type: *Appreciation*.

A. The Lesson Analyzed.

I. The Aim.

1. The teacher's—
 - a. Aim of the course; to increase the children's appreciation of good literature.
 - b. Aim of the lesson: to have the children understand and enjoy the poem, *Sweet and Low*.
2. The pupils' aim: to read the poem, *Sweet and Low*, trying to see in their minds what is described and to hear the mother as she sings to her baby.

II. Assignment.

"This beautiful little song, or lullaby, was written by the great English poet, Alfred Tennyson. It may be found in a long poem called 'The Princess,' which you will sometime read.

"The scene of the poem is a small fishing village, probably on the western coast of England. Let us try to see the village. Most of the houses are the small thatched-roofed dwellings of the fishermen. There are also small shops or stores. At the shore are the wharves, the buildings where fish are cured and packed, and the large reels where the fishing nets are dried.

"Back of the village is a hill from which can be seen the fleet of fishing boats far out at sea. Let us climb this hill till we come to a fisherman's cottage. We quietly

glance in at the door. There is a clean floor with pieces of rag carpet for rugs. In the corner is a neat bed with a many-colored quilt. In a large, old-fashioned rocking chair sits a fisherman's young wife, holding in her arms a baby about a year old. The mother is rocking the baby and at the same time looking out of the window far out to sea, where she can see the sail of her husband's fishing boat.

"Evening is coming on, the moon is rising, the tide will come in as the moon rises, and she knows that the husband and father will come home on the tide to her and the baby.

"She is singing in a low, sweet voice. She is not singing to the baby. She is singing a *prayer*, a prayer that the wind will not wreck his boat but that it will blow—

'Sweet and low, sweet and low,
Wind of the western sea,
Low, low, breathe and blow,
Wind of the western sea!'

"Out from the window she watches her husband's boat dancing homeward over the rolling waters, helped by the tide that the 'dying moon' is bringing and she sings on—

'Over the rolling waters go,
Come from the dying moon, and blow,
Blow him again to me.'

"Then she looks down at the baby, as she sings—

'While my little one, while my pretty one, sleeps.'

"As she looks down, the movement of her head wakens the baby, and he half opens his eyes. The mother rocks on, but she sings directly to the baby, singing—

'Sleep and rest, sleep and rest,
Father will come to thee soon;
Rest, rest on mother's breast,
Father will come to thee soon.'

"Now the baby closes his eyes again, and the mother rising very carefully, puts him into an old cradle at her side and gently tucks him in. Then she seats herself at

the window and again looking out, sees that the boat has come in, and knows that her husband will be at home with her and the baby. In a low voice, filled with joy, she now sings—

‘Father will come to his babe in the nest,
Silver sails all out of the west,
Under the silver moon.’

“Singing more and more softly and rocking more and more slowly, she closes her song with—

‘Sleep, my little one, sleep my pretty one, sleep,’

the song dying almost to a whisper as the baby lies asleep in his crib, and her husband comes in at the door.

“Now take a few moments and read the poem, following the story carefully and trying all the time to see what has been described and to hear the mother as she sings. (Be very quiet as you read.)

“Before you read, learn the meaning of the following words, which will help you in understanding the poem: *rolling waters; dying moon; silver sails.*”

III. Results expected. That the children will, after the poem may have been studied in class, understand it and thoroughly enjoy it.

IV. Methods. I shall, after assigning the lesson—

1. Let the children study the poem a few minutes, reading it and studying the discussion questions found in their text-book; and
2. Take the poem up in class, in the following way:
 - a. Call for a volunteer to read the poem as a whole, just as feelingly as he can (not the same children every day, though, on a lesson of this kind).
 - b. Then let four or more individuals read four lines each.
 - c. After each may have read, have discussion participated in by all the members of the class, using the questions given in the book and other similar ones made by the teacher and by the members of the class.
 - d. Have summary,

- 1) Through the reading of the whole poem by one child;
- 2) In song;
- 3) In memory of the poem.

B. The Recitation.

I. Introduction. As the assignment is so close to the recitation, that is intended to be the real introduction to this lesson, for the most part.

II. The subject-matter.

“Sweet and Low.”

Sweet and low, sweet and low,
 Wind of the western sea,
 Low, low, breathe and blow,
 Wind of the western sea.
 Sweet and low, sweet and low,
 Wind of the western sea;
 Low, low, breathe and blow,
 Wind of the western sea;
 Over the rolling waters go,
 Come from the dying moon,
 and blow,
 Blow him again to me,
 While my little one, while my
 pretty one, sleeps.

Sleep and rest, sleep and rest,
 Father will come to thee
 soon;
 Rest, rest, on mother's breast,
 Father will come to thee
 soon;
 Father will come to his babe in
 the nest,
 Silver sails all out of the
 west,
 Under the silver moon;
 Sleep, my little one, sleep,
 my pretty one, sleep.

III. Methods in detail, or

“Questions and Suggestions for Discussion.” “Now, since reading this poem, how do you like it? As we study it together, as we come more and more to hear the mother, as she sings to her baby, I am sure that we shall like it all the more. I am wondering who would like to read the whole poem, just as carefully as possible, trying all the time to see that young mother there in the cottage with her baby. Let a volunteer read.”

1. Who wrote “Sweet and Low”? Tell what you know of him.
2. What is the proper name for a song to put a baby to sleep?
3. Describe the village where the incident, told in this lullaby, is supposed to have happened.
4. In what industry were the people of the village engaged?
5. Where shall we imagine the cottage of the young fisherman to be?

6. Tell what we should have seen, had we peeped into the cottage on the evening when the lullaby was sung.
7. Why is the young mother looking far out of the window?
8. What is the dying moon?
9. What is she thinking or praying in the first lines of her song? What is she waiting and hoping for?
10. Can you see her, as she rocks the baby? Describe her.
11. Can you see the fishing boat coming in? Describe it.
12. What does she ask the wind to do for her?
13. At what line of the song does she turn from watching the boat to look at the baby? What does she sing, then? What does the baby do, as she looks down at him?
14. What does she promise the baby, as she sings to him?
15. What does she mean by "silver sails all out of the west"? Why are they called "silver sails"?
16. What line tells when she puts the baby into the cradle?
17. Who comes home when the baby is asleep? What do you suppose he did

- upon entering the house?
18. Have you been able to imagine what is described in the song? Describe it in your own words. (Let one read it all over once more to get it before us as a whole.)
19. This song has a beautiful tune and you will enjoy singing it. The words and music are given on page 20. (Suppose we turn now to this page and sing it and see how we like it.)

IV. Summary.

1. Question 18 above is one method of summary.
2. Question 19 above is another kind of summary.
3. "Children, did you really like this poem? How many enjoyed singing it? You think it is really a good poem? How good is it? Is it good enough to keep? How long would you like to keep it? Always? Very well, then, let us memorize it." (Use the whole method.) (Afterwards, have it rehearsed at intervals not too far apart, so that it will not be forgotten.)

SUMMARY

What the teacher needs to determine in working out a lesson plan. Whether a teacher shall actually write out a plan or shall make it mentally without writing anything down, there are certain things that are worth while to determine in advance during the preparation for teaching the lesson. They are as follows, and may be thought of as a summary of Chapter II to XIV of this volume:

1. **Lesson types.** At this point, if deemed needful, Chapters II, III, IV, might be reviewed now in the light of later discussions and the sample plans actually here given. "Type" was defined as a name for the pre-

dominating fundamental purpose of the lesson. The different "types" were then to name the several chief purposes of typical lessons.

2. **Aims.** In addition to naming the type, it is worth while actually to state the several aims involved in teaching a given lesson. These were discussed in Chapter V. One can not be certain of getting very far in a very effective manner unless he know the aims involved. The exposition of the aims in Chapter V and the illustration of some of them in typical lessons in Chapter XIV may now be considered, together.

3. **Assignment.** This was discussed in Chapter VI. One's assignments are based upon the aims to be achieved. The theoretical discussion of assignments in Chapter VI and the examples of aims and the samples of assignments given in Lesson Plans in Chapter XIV, together, will enable the student intelligently to study how to make effective assignments. This is one of the very important things for a teacher to master—how to make an effective assignment.

4. **Results expected.** In addition to stating the aims, and making the assignments, it is very helpful to make an estimate of what would be reasonable to expect as results of this lesson. The importance of this was set forth in Chapter VII. Sample statements of the results expected have been given in the several lesson plans of Chapter XIV.

5. **Methods by which to accomplish the results expected.** Now, knowing the type of your lesson, having its aims stated, having assigned it to accomplish these aims, and having estimated certain very *concrete results* expected from the lesson, in certain abilities, in certain knowledges, in certain attitudes, as evidence that the aim of the lesson has been achieved,

it is just now in place to sit down and look clear through the recitation period in advance and determine just exactly what will be your methods of procedure from the time you take charge of your class, till it shall have been closed, for all the recitations that may be necessary to cover that lesson unit. These were discussed for you in Chapters VIII, IX, X, and sample "Methods" have been given you in the several lesson plans in Chapter XIV.

6. Four points of the recitation.

- a. The introduction.
- b. The outlining and organizing of subject-matter.
- c. The detailing of methods in accordance with your organization of subject-matter.
- d. The summary, generalization, or rehearsal.

These were explained in Chapter XI. Samples have also been given of each of these parts in the several lesson plans presented in Chapter XIV.

In addition to following a good plan, whether the one herein given or some other, the *beginning teacher* needs to be reminded in advance of certain specific *excellences to seek* and certain specific *errors to avoid*. Some of these are listed and explained in Chapters XII and XIII. They have been discovered in the work of other beginning teachers.

The foregoing has been found by the author to be a very effective plan in the training of *beginning teachers*, and he trusts that it will be found valuable to those into whose hands this book shall come. All professional persons are expected to plan to perform their expert services. If teaching is to be a *fine art*, teachers cannot avoid very careful preparation, daily made. It is the necessary price by which teachers may expect to become *master artists*.

CLASS PROBLEMS

1. What points in a lesson plan are used by the author?
2. Are these too many? Why? Too few? Why?
3. If too many, which would you omit? Why?
4. What is the value of these lesson plans to teachers with full work, not finding it possible to write out in full every lesson plan? How can a teacher, lacking such time, utilize the points of a plan?
5. Take each elementary school subject for a teacher, with one grade, and estimate how much time she should use in making a daily preparation. Taking the whole time available, proportion it in minutes to each subject per day for preparation. (Only daily-studying teachers will ever be in love with their work, or win the esteem of pupils and people, or win and deserve promotion).
6. Criticize the plan for teaching a spelling lesson. What are the advantages—
 - a. Of having only a few words;
 - b. Of rehearsing them in the ways of the plan;
 - c. Of utilizing full twenty minutes for the recitation?Can spelling words be taught in such a way that the children will probably remember how to spell them? What are the ways in which this may be done?
7. Criticize the contest method of reviewing spelling, given in Plan 2. List other methods of reviewing it equally or more effectively.
8. Criticize (see closing paragraph of Chapter I) Lesson Plan 3. What do you think of the plan of organization presented? How many things should children be expected to learn about Pocahontas? What other methods would you suggest for teaching this same lesson?
9. In Plan 5, do you think sufficient specific cases are taken on the basis of which to generalize nouns? Is the method of development sufficient to guarantee that the children will really get the understanding of the principle, before wording it? Why?
10. Criticize Lesson Plan 6—
 - a. As to its purpose;
 - b. As to its organization;
 - c. As to its provision for use of judgment on part of children; and
 - d. As to respect for the children's individuality.

What proportion of the children's English work in the grades 4-8 should be practical language? What proportion should be grammar?

11. Criticize Lesson Plan 7—

- a. In its purpose;
- b. In its use of supplementary material;
- c. In its points of organization for the study of a section;
- d. In its provision for discussion;
- e. In its provision for summary.

What other problems, or projects, would be available for the teaching of the necessary geography of this section? What other methods might be equally or more effective in this topic?

12. Lesson Plan 8.

- a. How many recitation periods ought to be used for its effective teaching?
- b. What points ought to be covered in the study of a continent?
- c. How advantageous is it to have a fairly uniform plan for the study of a continent, with ten points, as in this plan?
- d. How much use do you think ought to be made of the principle of comparison in the teaching of geography?
- e. How advantageous is it to teach geography in "large units" as by the section or continent?
- f. Can geography be made a subject for the training of children to think, as valuable as arithmetic or other subjects? How?

13. Criticize Lesson Plan 9.

- a. As to its motive;
- b. As to its devices;
- c. As to the conditions of practice;
- d. As per other methods of practice known to you.

What do you think of the question under the head of "Summary"?

What does time have to do with efficiency in the use of the fundamentals in arithmetic?

14. In Lesson Plan 10, consider whether all introductory lessons to arithmetic topics should be made inductive-deductive; how many examples ought to be used as the basis for generalizing the rule or principle by which that sort of work is done; how much deductive exercise should be provided to make sure that the principle is sufficiently "over-learned"

for easy subsequent use and memory. Is it better to let the statement of the rule come at the end of a process, explained by many illustrative exercises? Why? To what extent should you have children hold to the statement thereafter as worked out by your class? (See last two paragraphs under the discussion of the inductive and deductive lessons.) What do you consider the value of working out a plan covering a whole topic, the same plan lasting you for several days?

15. Plan 11 is named as an "information" lesson. To what extent and by what methods may you expect your children to retain and immediately make use of the information gained from its study? To what extent may you expect that the children will remember and use the "information" about the flies, given in Plan 11? To what extent must you make use of the methods of report and discussion? To what extent can application of the "information" be suggested in a hygiene lesson? Will the children be "changed for the better" by reason of the study of a hygiene topic, after the plan outlined here? Why?
16. What do you understand by the term "expression," when naming a type of lesson? Does the Civics lesson here planned (Plan 12) truly illustrate the "expression" lesson? What is the major method running through this plan? To what extent can you provide for *expression* in other lessons in civics? When so provided, what value does it serve? To what extent should *expression* be a purpose in all lessons? Why?
17. What is an appreciation lesson? Does Plan 13 really illustrate one in reading? What are the good points in it? How could it be improved? Should enjoyment be made a feature of all lessons? Can that be done? Is it desirable? Why?

PART II

THE ELEMENTS OF MANAGEMENT OF SCHOOLS AND ROOMS

CHAPTER XV

ORGANIZING THE SCHOOL—1 BEFORE AND ON THE FIRST DAY

1. Organization. In modern life the efficiency of any institution or agency is dependent upon the method and character of its organization. This term implies much more than mere arrangement; it is an arrangement to achieve certain purposes. It is the systematization of the factors to be employed that the results desired may be accomplished. It is the planning of a big task by seeing the end from the beginning and utilizing the agencies available for its accomplishment. If we believe that the children should be taught arithmetic, spelling, reading, geography, and other subjects, we wish to organize our school so that the children shall be sure of learning those things as thoroughly as possible. If attendance, attention, motives, incentives, and the like are productive of learning, then we must plan our school work to make the most of them. If books, libraries, blackboards, maps, charts, drill cards, help children in their learning, we must make our plans accordingly. In other words, organization of a school means systematically arranging the features of a school environment that contribute to learning so that the children who are placed in it shall profit maximally in their learning.

There have been teachers who did not organize their schools. They let the children bring any books they chose to school, take any portions of them for lessons, come for recitation as frequently as they chose. The

teacher would occasionally ask children whether they were ready for recitation. Those who read this book have probably never seen a school conducted in that way. The author has seen them. The values of organization are now so apparent that schools are generally organized in some sort of way, whether it is good or not. The teacher should recognize that good organization saves time and nerves, divides responsibility, and appoints unto every worker in the system his own task. Thus, as soon as it becomes familiar, it becomes at the same time largely self-regulative.

If the teacher is to organize the school in an efficient way, he or she should recognize that there are some things that should have attention even before the first day of school. There are some other things to be done on the first day of school that must be planned before the first day.

As this is a message to individual beginning teachers, the word "school" as herein employed is to mean *the children of one room*, whether in the big school or the small school.

2. Before the first day of school.

a. In many places teachers are summoned to the county or community or city ahead of time to attend teachers' meetings at which the principal or superintendent gives out certain directions for the opening of the school. In case of a call of this kind the *beginning teacher* must be on hand. Directions, materials, instructions, and the like are given to teachers that will enable them to help put into effect the school policy. The association with older teachers, too, is worth while, and from them certain valuable suggestions are gained. Whether there shall be a meeting of teachers ahead of time, or not, nevertheless the beginning teacher should

b. **Come to the community ahead of time.** Here are

some of the matters that need your attention in that community before the first day of school:

1) *A boarding place.* Where are you going to stay? A few of you are going to teach in your home community, and are going to board at home. That is not well. You have gone to school with some of the children whom you will teach. They will think of you as a fellow-pupil, rather than as a teacher. The parents will think of you and speak of you as "Mary" or as "Will." If you are in another community, the children would know you only as an adult person, and the parents would think of you as "Miss Parsons" or as "Mr. Barrett." But if you, as a *beginning teacher*, have done wisely and have gone away from your home for your first school, you will want to have chosen your boarding place and to be settled in your own room ahead of the opening of school. Some of you will be very fortunate in teaching in a school for which a "Teachers' Home" has been erected; you and the other teachers will live there as a family in the community. In case you live in another's home, your superintendent or principal or some member of the school board can advise you in what families you may make boarding arrangements. Having made these arrangements, make up your mind that you will in no case be hard to please. Be a coöperating member in the home, taking things as they come, making yourself congenial, trying to make others happy, really making the whole family feel glad that you were taken in to board. All families do not conduct their life the same way. You will, therefore, do well not to complain about the fare, nor to write home about the dreadful treatment you are receiving, nor to gossip about it to your friends and fellow-teachers. One young lady went away to teach. In her boarding place she did not find things just like those which she left at home,

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and she became so unhappy that she ran away and went home before the first week closed, leaving the school without a teacher. Young teachers, be heroes and resolve that it is a good thing to attack hard things and to do them. No one ever gets very far toward success by seeking "soft snaps," or "flowery beds of ease." The really great teachers of this country have thought very little about their own comfort; they have been thinking most about the great purposes which they were to accomplish in the lives of boys and girls.

2) *The school house and grounds.* There are some things that the teacher must seek to find out ahead. The teacher must know in advance certain conditions. It is well for the teacher to know whether there are books available for the children; whether such supplies as crayons are on hand; what the conditions of maps, charts, pictures, library, and the like are; what the situation with regard to seats, desks and boards; where hats and wraps can be put; how the children may enter and leave the building; how best to regulate the light and ventilation; what the arrangements are for drinking and for toilets; and many other things that are purely local. These bits of information will mean a great deal in planning for the opening of school. To master such elements of the situation will enable the children and the parents to think of the teacher with respect, as if he or she were really "experienced."

There are some things that the teacher will wish to put on the board before the first day. It may be directions as to work; it may be a calendar, or border, or other matter.

c. **Plan assignments, recitations, recesses, for the first day.** This planning can best take place after visiting the school plant. This, carefully planned, will show you as a "master" of that part of the situation.

Planning these things simply means determining in advance what you are going to do and how you are going to do it.

d. **Calling on a few families.** It makes no difference that they have not called on you. You are there as a servant of the community. You can do that work better by knowing some of the people, by getting their ideas and suggestions, by showing them that they have a teacher who knows how to be courteous and who can talk about things. Such calls enable you to make the acquaintance of some of the children, from whom you will incidentally learn some things that will help you. The average parent would rather have a teacher who is friendly, courteous, congenial, and who can be liked as a friend, though barely making a certificate, than to have the person holding the highest university degrees who lacks such qualities. You go right into their homes and say, "Why, I am the new teacher. You will excuse me for calling so soon; but I just wanted to make your acquaintance." You will talk, then, about anything that comes up, very much as you would in calling on anyone else. You will not confine your calls to the wealthy families.

e. **Making special preparations for the opening.** Sometimes there are things that must be done at the school before the opening. Not all schools are left in the desired condition for beginning the next session. Sometimes the new teacher must take the initiative and make the improvements. It may be the cleaning up of the house, the re-arranging of the desks, the scouring of the floor, the cleaning of the school grounds, and so on. In well-managed systems, all these things are attended to by the proper persons, and the teacher does not have to do anything in such matters. In cases, however, where they are not looked after, the teacher should

always be ready to initiate the proper steps to get this done. One teacher, who had gone into the community, a week ahead, had been able to call on a great many families and invite them to an educational rally at the school house on Friday before school would open. Those parents came. The men and the larger boys cleaned up the school grounds, while the women and larger girls helped to make the inside of the school-house attractive. After this, the people gathered indoors and had some singing and speaking. Then they had dinner on the grounds. The day was valuable both educationally and socially. The teacher was able to make all her announcements about opening on Monday.

f. Be prepared to teach the lessons of the first day. It would never do for the children to find you caught on any sort of a problem on the first day. They will be there to "size you up." Be prepared so that they will size you up as a teacher worth while. Planning your work ahead makes your work go off more easily.

g. Learn the peculiar characteristics of personalities. If anyone tells you of a very bad boy in the community who will be in your room, just remember that he is not bad to you. As soon as possible, after school shall open, get that very boy to do you some service. In a western state a man was engaged to teach a one-room school. Every teacher for several schools had been run away by the bad boys. This man found out about them before school began. On the first day he came to school, riding horseback. He knew in advance which one the ringleader was, when he saw the boys standing out in a crowd, evidently already making their plot. So, when he rode up, he immediately called this boy, the ring-leader, and asked him if he would mind riding his horse over to the house nearby and put-

ting her in the stable for him. This the boy did. He liked being shown this attention. When he came back, the teacher said, "How did she ride?" "Fine," answered the boy. The teacher then said, "Would you put her up for me every morning?" "Sure, I will," said the boy. A little later he told his chums, "Now, look here, fellows, none you ain't got to give that teacher no trouble; if you do, you got me to lick." If you can find out the peculiar children in advance, you can use them in a way to get along well. If there be peculiar adults in the community, to know them early would enable you to show them some attention, so that they would come to fight for you instead of fighting against you, as they fought against your predecessor. Among your children, there will be some to whom the others naturally look up. Find those out as soon as possible. Have them perform as many services for you or for the school as possible. Thus you will use their energies, instead of having to repress them. Some of this you will find out even before school begins.

In some communities it is arranged that the teacher may take the school census, for which service the teacher is paid. This gives the teacher or teachers an excellent opportunity to call on all the people of the community, get the children's names and such other information as the census calls for, and talk with the parents about the school and the necessity for the children to report for work the very first day. Having had the opportunity myself to do this kind of work, once during school session and once before school began, I commend it as an opportunity to be sought by the teachers.

3. The first day. At last the day for opening school has come. You have been planning for it carefully and are glad that it has arrived. You have already

decided that, as first impressions are lasting, you will start in right and in the way you can keep on. However, you will have as a mental reservation that, if you find, after starting in, that some particular thing may go better in some way other than you had planned, you will not hesitate to change.

a. **The thousand-and-one things that are to be done** the first day you have already planned for, and you are going to open school as an experienced teacher would. In fact, you do have some "experience." It was not gained in the schoolroom before, perhaps, but your careful planning ahead was a valuable "experience" in itself. The children are there the first day to see you, rather than to study books. They are studying you and are getting their impressions so that they may go home after school shall be dismissed and tell their parents and friends whether they like the teacher.

b. **At school early.** The first day, be at school early; if possible, before any children shall get there. Thus you will be able to greet in a friendly way all the children as they come. You can talk with them; if there be need for anything to be done, you can call for them to volunteer to help you do it. You will show them that you know how to be a friend to children. This friendly intercourse will go far toward smoothing the day's procedure, and you will enjoy it, too. Remember that "school" here means your schoolroom. It is the whole school, if it be a one-room school. It may be just one room in a large building. This term throughout this book will mean your schoolroom and its children. Management is what you do; it is not to refer to what others shall do. I am hoping that the "experience" which comes from the lives of thousands of successful teachers will be taken by you as a personal message, given as from one friend to another.

When the time shall come for you to call the children (and you should open school the first day at the time at which you will open it on any other days), you may have some child ring the bell. In a large school the principal will have that attended to for you. It will be well for you to have the children come right on in informally this first time, take their seats and be ready for what you will do. They may hang up their own hats and wraps. They may, at first, select their own seats.

As soon as the children shall be in their seats, with hats and wraps put away, you may have brief opening exercises. These may well be the singing of one or two songs which the children know. It might include "America." After the singing, if the laws of the state do not forbid, nor rules of the board interfere, you may read a selection from the Scriptures, and have repeated in concert the Lord's Prayer. When this has been done, you may make whatever remarks are in place; not a long speech, but something of the things that are to be done (saying nothing now about what are not to be done). With this behind you, you are ready to proceed with the classification of the school.

c. **Classification.** If your school has been well organized and administered, the children probably have in their hands the cards which admit them to your room. This will be almost surely so, if you are to teach only one grade, or section. In a smaller school, in which each teacher has two or more grades, the children may or may not have admission cards; this in accordance with the goodness of administration in that county. If you are in sole charge of the school, that is, if yours is a one-room school, in many cases the children will have no cards admitting them regularly to grades, and you must make the classification yourself. In this case,

if you can get hold of the previous teacher's register or record book, it will help you determine in what way to classify the children. In case the register is not available, then you will have to get from the children themselves the information on the basis of which you will classify them.

It is well to remember that during vacations children usually forget a great deal of the "information" which they acquired in the past session, though they may be more intelligent and have more power to learn than last year. That the children cannot answer glibly what they covered last year is no reason why they should be required to repeat the grade in which they were enrolled last year. You will have in mind that, in starting out, you will have to give them a brief review of what they covered last year, expecting in two or three weeks, or a month, to get the review made so thoroughly that they may take up where they left off last year and go right ahead with it.

To start off, you will have the children, from the third grade up, give you, on slips of paper, the following information:

- 1) Full double name;
- 2) Age;
- 3) Grade to which promoted last spring;
- 4) Name and address of father or mother, or guardian if father is not living;
- 5) Any other information needed in your school system.

After getting the foregoing information, which you will take up and have ready for use, you will call for their promotion cards given last year. It may be that your superintendent will have given you a promotion list containing the names of the children who are to be in your room. If so, those whose names are not there

will have to be sent to see him. If he is away at some other school, you may admit the child, if it seem prepared for your room, but with the understanding that the admission is tentative and will have to be passed on by the superintendent or principal when he comes around. In case you have an admission list, or the children have promotion cards, your task is very much simplified.

If you have neither promotion list nor the last teacher's register, and if the children have no promotion cards, you will proceed to ask the children about their classification of last year. As you are a stranger and a beginner, it will be as well to take what the children say. You will let them be classified as they were last year. You will have in mind to have them start, as soon as possible, where they say they left off. However, you will need to have them review some of the work of last year, to get a setting and a preparation for the advance work of this year. In case you have to go through with all this, make up your mind that you will leave a promotion list next year for your successor.

As soon as you get the children arranged into classes, you will make some assignment of lessons to get them to work. In some local school systems, the children come to school the first day, give in their names, receive a book list and then go home for the day, with no assignments for work. That is a great waste of time and opportunity. Unless the authorities have other plans and if you are at liberty to plan your own work, it is well to get in a full day's work the first day at school, dismissing, perhaps, one hour earlier than you will thereafter.

It will be well to have the children assigned to particular seats. In doing this, you will try not to anger or antagonize the children. It may be well to respect

their wishes, so far as they do not break up badly your plans. The seats are to be assigned with reference to the sex, the size, the gradation of the children. Girls' seats are usually separate from those of the boys; small children are not to be put in large seats; children of a particular grade usually sit together.

d. Plans for leaving room. With your opening, the classification, the seating, all out of the way, you are probably ready to have the first recess. Take enough time to explain your method of getting out of the room to the playground. (See Chapter on Routinizing the Minor Details of the School.) Have the children rehearse this a bit to the end that they may line up properly and march out in order and decency. Marching in and out will be one of your routine procedures explained in the chapter referred to. This will systematize going out of and into the room, eliminating disorder and unnecessary noise. Sometimes a teacher has no plan like this. When recess or dismissal is announced, the children make a break for the doors and windows damaging furniture and creating a noise like the passing of a freight train or the sound of thunder. Your system will prevent this.

The coming of the children back into the school room will be routinized in a way similar to that in which you had them go out. You may direct their marching in any of the following ways:

- 1) Let them pass in lines, two and two, with no direction;

- 2) Count for them to march by, as "one," "two," "one," "two," and so on, having them put down their left foot as you say "one," and their right foot as you say "two."

- 3) Have them place their feet on the ground as you say, "left," "right," and so on.

4) You may tap a bell, having them put down their left foot at each tap of the bell. In this case, you would tap it at each alternate step, not tapping it as they put down their right foot.

5) You may have some one play the piano, using a good march to guide their steps.

6) You may use a Victrola, with good marching records. This is probably the best way to get good marching done in a more quiet way.

e. **School rules.** When the children get back in school, it will be well to take up with them the matter of school rules, and ask them to help you make some rules for the government of the school. This may be done from the third grade up. It will be easier for you to enforce them, if the children have had a part in helping you make them. Many teachers get all the rules they ever want from the children. You will do this, of course, at the time when they are feeling good, and they will speak forth their best selves. The teacher asks the children what they think would be fair rules for them to live by in school, so that they may profit most from their school work and get the most from the school for which their parents have paid their money in taxes. Rules should be directive rather than prohibitive. They should indicate what to do. It is not enough for a teacher to say, "I have but one rule: Do right." Children do not know what "right" is. A few simple rules are to guide them into doing right, in so far as their own situation is concerned. Here are a few rules, legislated by the children themselves, under the teacher's guidance, in a school which the writer visited:

1) In order not to disturb others in their work, we shall not talk to each other during school, and we shall not leave our seats without permission.

2) We shall work quietly, not reading aloud, nor dropping books, pencils, and the like.

3) We shall be polite to our teacher and to one another.

4) We shall not break in, when another is talking in class.

5) We shall walk quietly about the room.

6) We shall keep our boards clean.

7) We shall keep our floor free from paper, pencil sharpenings, mud, coal ashes, coal, and the like.

8) We shall keep our books arranged well in our desks and in the book case.

9) We shall keep flowers on the teacher's desk.

10) We shall keep coal buckets and waste baskets out of sight.

11) We shall not cut nor mark on our desks.

12) We shall clean our shoes before coming indoors.

13) We shall keep paper and other waste off our grounds.

f. Distribution of hats and wraps. It will be necessary to teach the children how you wish them to manage their hats and wraps. Many schools have monitors appointed to take up and to hand out the hats and wraps. This is not the best way, as it is unhygienic. Some children carry in their clothes the germs of contagious diseases and "contagious" insects. It is better for each child to have his own hanger assigned. It may be possible to arrange that after the children come in. While they still stand in their places, before sitting, you may let one row of children at a time proceed to the cloak room to hang up each his own things. A similar method may be used for getting their things, when they are ready to leave the room at recess or at closing. In going to get or to put up their hats and wraps, they should go quietly.

g. Conducting classes the first day. Before proceeding with the class work, it will be well for you to reduce the method of coming to class and of leaving to a routine procedure. (See Chapter on Routinizing the Minor Details of the School.) If your room has not already a recitation seat or seats, keep on asking for it till you get it. The recitation seat is worth much. The coming up to it for class and the going back to the seats provide a bit of physical exercise that is worth while. To have the class that you are teaching separate and apart from the other children provides a certain dignity that helps in discipline and class work. The going to the board, the going to class, the going back to seats, all should be reduced to routine procedure for the prevention of unnecessary noise, and for the systematizing of the class control.

h. Recesses. The plans for recesses vary in different sections and systems of schools. In elementary schools recesses should come not less frequently than once each 75 to 90 minutes. Such recesses are usually ten minutes long. Counting the going out and the coming in, you use about fifteen minutes for the short recesses. In primary grades, where possible, it is well to have a five-minute recess each hour. In any case, there usually comes a noon recess varying in length, according to community conditions, from twenty to sixty minutes. Sometimes, children bring their lunches with them; again, they go home for lunch. If the children bring their lunches with them, the eating of these lunches should be supervised. (See under Hygienizing the School.)

Thus far, you have your school organized and ready to start, except one thing. That is the *daily program*. That is such an important factor and one so difficult to take care of that I shall take the next chapter to dis-

cuss it for you and offer sample programs. Of course, it is not possible to mention everything in advance, and there will be much for you to work out, in terms of local needs. When any problem comes up for you to solve, ask yourself what the needs of the school are, and act accordingly.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. Take your own home community; write out in complete sentences all the things you think you should do before school opens, if you were going to open school there.
2. If you know in what community you will teach this year or next year, write out in full sentences all the things you will do, before school opens.
 - a. Where will you board? Why?
 - b. What families will you call to see? Why?
3. Make a list of the things at school that need attention before school opens.

4. Make a program for a school rally to be held at the school-house, just before school opens.
5. What adults, and what children, can you use to help you in the matter of opening the school? What subsequent values might be possible from this use of their services?
6. Write out in complete sentences a list of the things you will do the first day of school.
7. What rules do you think you will need for the government of the children? How can you get the children, in helping you make the few rules for your government, actually to suggest the rules you have in mind?
8. Should children's marching in and out be reduced to routine procedure? Why?
9. After visiting the school, in which you are going to teach, write out a plan, easy to administer, for getting the children into and out of the room in the most orderly and dignified way.
10. How will you classify your children? What information will you need to get from them?
11. In case the children cannot answer questions satisfactorily on subject-matter covered last year, are you going to demote them and require that they repeat last year's work? Why?
12. How will you conduct the classes for the first day? How afterward?
13. What provision will you make for the recesses? For the lunch period?

CHAPTER XVI

ORGANIZING THE SCHOOL—2 THE DAILY PROGRAM

1. **What it is.** This is one of the most difficult of routine factors of school work to care for. Therefore, a whole chapter is used to give just as concrete help as possible. You have gone a long way toward success when you have a good daily program. The program is a very definite organization of the work to be done in a course of study for a given group of school children. It is the systematic arrangement of the subjects to be studied by those children, with reference to the other factors in the school situation. It is a laying out of the work for these children—your children—to be followed up and done day by day. It is the pathway through the cross section of the course of study for that day. It is your whole day's work planned out and published for the guidance of both yourself and your children. It is your first routinized school procedure.

2. **Its purposes.** There are many purposes served by a carefully made program. What purposes are served by the daily schedule of a railroad? Many of these same purposes appear in a well planned school day's work. Some of the school purposes are as follows:

a. It establishes the tasks for all in the room for each portion of the day. Every child knows what his task is at each time of the day, whether the time period be long or short.

b. Each portion of the work is undertaken without

hesitation. This could not be so if one had to determine at each step just what to do next. There was no program in the old school. Each child set his own program.

c. Noise, friction, strain, confusion are diminished. It makes it possible to have active, but quiet, work throughout the day. As each one knows what to do next, there is no friction or confusion. The strain upon the teacher's nerves is decreased. Everything, so far as the minor things are concerned, moves like clock-work.

d. Time is distributed through the day in proper proportions to pupils and subjects. No subject and no group of pupils get the lion's share of time and attention.

e. The systematic arrangement of the children's tasks enables them to work more efficiently. They may, or may not, learn the value of programming their tasks in other fields of life, in accordance with whether it is made an ideal with them here.

f. School discipline becomes easier, and the children are more easily controlled.

3. The factors involved in making the program. There are certain principles, which, when understood, aid one materially in making the daily program. Some of the more important ones are discussed below.

a. Time available.

1) *The length of the school year.* The school year varies in different states and sections of states all the way from 100 to 200 days. This must be considered when you make a program. Suppose your school term is nine months long; and suppose you have only one grade to teach; then you may provide for having each of your subjects every day. On the other hand, if your school term is seven months only, and you have two or

three grades to teach, you may well arrange to give such subjects as language and arithmetic more time than usual to cover the course for the year, and may reduce the daily time in other less important subjects.

2) *The length of the school day.* Some schools have only five hours, or less, while others have six hours. In the latter day, you will have more time for certain subjects than in shorter days.

b. **Grades and classes.** Your program will vary much in terms of grades or classes which you teach. There would be a vast difference between the program for a first grade and one for the seventh grade. There would be a difference in the subjects, in the number of subjects, in the lengths of periods, and in the number of classes to be provided. A program has to be made in terms of what grade or class is to use it.

c. **Subjects.** In addition to grades or classes, which for the most part also determine the subjects to be provided for, there is a variation, especially in the upper grades, in the several states. There is, or properly should be, a difference in subjects, as determined by whether the school is a city, a village, or a rural school. Also, two drill subjects should not follow each other in the program. Two very difficult subjects should be separated by lighter subjects. Those subjects in which interest is most easily stimulated may well be put toward the end of the day. The factor of mental fatigue is not so serious as was once thought. Children's ability to do mental work is probably not diminished during the passing of the school day, because of their mental work of that day. They may do quite as good work in the afternoon as in the forenoon, if sufficient interest and motive be provided. The factors of motive and interest, however, are not as easily controlled in the afternoon as in the forenoon. Therefore, any subject which

may be usually least interesting, should be had in the forenoon, when motives are more easily directed. Subjects such as home economics, or the manual arts, may well be put late in the afternoon.

d. **Recreation.** There must be some provision for recreation. Many teachers will provide at the close of every recitation for some form of recreation for a minute or more. They may have the children stand up, throw their shoulders back, and sing a piece which they like very much. They may have the children play a little game that takes only a minute or so to play. Such need not be written down on the program, if the teacher understands the need for it. Many teachers of very small children will even throw the recreation right into the middle of the recitation, especially if they need the children's undivided attention on the point to come next in the recitation.

The thing that you will put on your program is the placing of the subjects that are lighter and recreational in their nature between heavy content subjects, or practice subjects. Thus, say, music might come between arithmetic and language. Drawing might come between geography and history. A story might come last in the afternoon, and music might come first in the morning in connection with the opening exercises.

e. **Provision for study in school.** A good program shows the children what subjects to study at the periods in which they are not reciting. Subjects studied in school may well be placed just before the time at which the recitations in these subjects come. Individual children who are bright and who finish their studying quickly should have the privilege of coming to the teacher's desk and borrowing a book which the teacher has there for children to read, when their studying is over. Thus bright children may be kept out of mis-

chief, and may also have the opportunity of getting some of the best of their education from the reading of good books not available to them elsewhere.

f. **Recesses.** This factor will affect your program slightly. In some communities, the children have a noon recess in the middle of the day, and a ten- to fifteen-minute recess in both the forenoon and the afternoon. In other communities, instead of having the midday meal at noon, the people have it at 2 o'clock and wish to have the children at home with them at lunch. In the latter type of community, you have one short recess of, say, ten minutes about 10:15 o'clock, and a twenty-minute recess at 12 o'clock. In this case, it is well for you to follow community custom and make your school program accommodate the people whose children you teach. In making your program, you will not put subjects, which require careful muscular coördination, in the periods just after recess. This would apply particularly to writing and drawing.

g. **Kind of school.** If you have a position in a highly developed city school system, the program may be made for you before you get there. In such a case you would have only one grade to teach or one section of a grade. If you were to teach in a village school, you would have two, three or four grades to teach. If you were teaching in a one-teacher school and had all the grades to manage, your program would vary accordingly. There are two lines of variation from the one-grade program of a city school:

1) *Combination.* It is possible, in order to reduce the number of classes which you would have to teach, to combine certain classes and still conduct them fairly efficiently. For example, you may combine all your spelling classes into not more than two or three classes. You may combine fourth grade geography and sixth

grade geography advantageously, so that the children in the two grades named may be studying practically the same topics. The children in the sixth grade are more advanced and have to do more reading. The same may be true for fifth and seventh grade geography. The writer has used this plan very successfully in his rural training schools. Fourth and fifth grade history, and sixth and seventh grade history classes may be combined, to cover the work of one of these grades the first year and of the other next year. Reading classes may be similarly combined. It is not so easy to combine arithmetic classes. All writing classes may be combined.

2) *Alternation.* This means that one subject may come for one day and another the next, or that one subject may come for one half-year and another for the next half-year. The history class combination mentioned in the preceding paragraph is also a method of alternation. For example, because of the lack of time or the multitude of subjects, writing may come one day and drawing the next. Hygiene may come one half year and civics the next. Music and nature study may similarly alternate with each other.

h. **Individual variation.** In determining the progress of pupils it is sometimes wise to permit them to vary from strict gradedness. If a pupil is superior and is bright in arithmetic, he might be permitted to take the subject both in his own grade and in the one above him. If the pupil last year failed in only one subject, or even in two subjects, do not keep him down in all his subjects. It is all right for him to have part of his subjects in one grade and part of them in another. But, you say, that breaks up your system. Remember that the system was made for the pupil and not the pupil for the system. If a child is superior in a given

subject, do not throw that subject out of his program; let him have as much of it as he wants. That is probably where he is "born long" and it may become the base upon which his life work will be built. Furthermore, that enables you to control him better through utilizing the lines of his own interest. If it will help you build a character and a personality worth while, be sure to let a given child vary in his program from the typical program. If you have in your room only one grade and you proceed to divide the room into two sections, one having the brighter children and the other the slower there are a few children who might be in the slower section in some subjects and in the brighter section in the other subjects. If so, permit that variation. (By the way, you must not, under any circumstances, tell anybody that you consider the children in the latter section the slower or the duller children; that will sooner or later come to the ears of their parents and will offend them.)

i. The last half hour of the day free of classes.

This is a plan that is not in vogue in many schools. However, it has its values. The writer has used it in his training schools to advantage for encouraging good work and good conduct. In other words, if the arrangement of school was that it might close at 3:30 o'clock, the regular closing time was put on the program for 4 o'clock. This last period was "optional" with the teacher as to what might be put into it. It was announced to the children that all whose work during the day was absolutely satisfactory and whose conduct was good might be excused at 3:30. In other words, this last half-hour was a prize which any pupil might win every day by good school work and good behavior. This meant that, if a child was to be excused, his spelling, his arithmetic, his history, and his work in all subjects must

be absolutely satisfactory to his teacher; and his deportment must likewise conform to the rules of right living in the school during the day. The pupil whose class work and whose deportment were not satisfactory failed to win this premium. He might use the last half-hour, therefore, to make his work satisfactory or do what the teacher desired him to do. This was all managed pleasantly. Nothing was said about "keeping in." This time was on the program as a part of the school day. To remain throughout this period was not spoken of as a punishment. It was not used as a period of punishment; it was an opportunity for the slower pupils. It was an encouragement to the brighter ones to work harder in school, to win this period off as a prize. It was a stimulation to all to deport themselves better.

4. How to use the program. It is not worth making unless it is to be used. It must serve the teacher and the pupils in a way to produce the highest efficiency in the work of the school.

a. Post near the door. The program in this place is available for the children, whenever they may need to look at it. Visitors may also look at it and see just what is going on, and what they may expect to see next. (By the way, it is not necessary to vary your program because visitors are present, unless they have come for a special purpose. If so, and if they notify you of their purpose, it is well to accommodate them, as far as possible. However, the best observation of your work is had when you go right along, as if you knew what to do and how to do it. If a teacher tries to get out of doing her regular program by giving "written lessons" on "singing exercises," the observer sees through the artifice. If that sort of work is on your program, when visitors come, go ahead and do it. If not, do not put it on just to get out of being observed in your

regular teaching. Furthermore, the teacher who really prepared his or her lessons last night for today's teaching has no objection to visitors present, while regular classes are being conducted.) You keep a copy, in your register, or on your desk, for your own use, and from which to make a new one, if the public one should be destroyed in any way. School officials are very sure to look for your program. Have it up every day.

b. **Stick to your program.** It is permissible to revise your program slightly, as experience may show to be best, but for the most part do not vary from your regular program. If the superintendent does not come often, and if he wishes to do anything when he does come, you might let his work be substituted in place of whatever is on the program at the time of his visit. If you wish to put on a special program on Friday afternoon, or on special days, such as Columbus Day, or Thanksgiving Day, or February 22nd, or on any other day, it would be perfectly justifiable to substitute special exercises in keeping with the day, or time, in place of the subjects on the program for the time at which the special exercises are had. Otherwise, stick close to your public program.

c. **No lagging.** Having perfected your program, by revising the original draft to correct any errors, then each day begin on the minute and go right through the day with your program. It is better to run out a minute or two ahead at the close of recitation periods than to get into the habit of running over time. Watch your time; or have a pupil appointed to help you watch it. Get the reputation at once that you are a *minute man*, whether you be a man or a woman. In opening school in the morning, have everything in readiness and be waiting to begin, rather than begin a half-minute late. It is possible for you to go right ahead with your

work, never getting behind a minute, and yet never seem rushed. Bring up your pupils to value the time of themselves and of other people. Too many people have no appreciation of the value of the time of other people. Do not let your children grow up to be numbered among such people. Business methods involve a careful conformance with published schedules. Do not lag and fall behind in your daily program. Do as much as you can in a day, or in a period, and stop promptly at its close. If you have over-estimated what you can do in that time, or if unforeseen difficulties present themselves to retard your expected progress in the period, or the day, do not be discouraged; you have done your best; stop now and take up here next time. So, start promptly and move on with your program, making all of its points on schedule time.

d. **The use of capable pupils.** Sometimes, as a means of helping you keep up with your schedule, it is allowable to use capable pupils in certain check-up work, to conserve your own time. In that case, you must not over-praise the brighter ones, as that would tend to make them unpopular, and possibly egotistic. For example, if you have eight children working at the board, if four of them finish early, and the other four are working slowly, or with difficulty, it is permissible to ask the first four to aid those lagging. This should not be done merely because the latter are behind, but only as a help to the teacher, if she need it. Such a procedure would keep the first four busy and out of mischief; it would assist the others who might be struggling. Children are frequently asked in spelling to exchange papers and check each other's work. This is a device for conserving the teacher's time for all, for getting the work done efficiently, and for going through on schedule time.

5. **Sample programs.** The following programs are given that they may be looked over by the *beginning teachers*, and that any type program for a given teacher's work might be taken and modified to conform to the particular requirements of the given local community. It is not intended that any one of them should be copied verbatim. If there should be any of them, however, which exactly fits your needs in the particular school in which you will teach, and if you wish to use that one, there would, of course, be no objection to your so taking it and using it.

a. **A program for a one-teacher school.** This program was made by Miss Blanche Daniels, Critic Teacher of the Rockford Rural One-Teacher Training School, State Normal School, Radford, Virginia. The term "one-teacher school" is here used instead of one-room school, because there will be one-teacher schools long after the one-room schools shall have had one or more rooms added. There is at Kingsport, Tennessee, a *one-teacher school* which uses five rooms,—a regular classroom, a library, a cooking room, a sewing room, a wood shop. The Rockford program here given was a strictly one-teacher program. Here are some of its features, in the program of the school, in which Miss Daniels was the demonstration *one-teacher*:

- 1) No period shorter than twenty minutes, except for opening exercises.
- 2) Provisions for study and other seat work, as well as for classwork.
- 3) Combination of classes:
- 4) Supervised lunch period for twenty minutes, plus supervised play for twenty minutes.
- 5) In reading classes, the combination method was highly successful. Take the second group, at 9:35, for

example. There were about fifteen pupils in the group. Each grade had different books from which to read. Sometimes, each pupil had a different book. All four of these grades came up at the same time for recitation. By careful selection of reading matter the material read was always new to all except those to whom it had been assigned. It was new to them before it had been assigned. The children's motive all the time was to prepare to read so well that they might read their new stories to the others of the class so that the latter would enjoy them. This became a rather impelling motive to both reader and listener. The readers did read well; the listeners listened well. When one had read to others, then all, regardless of grade, participated in the discussion of the story or part of the story read. The method did serve to stimulate a great deal of private reading entirely apart from the assignments.

6) Drawing and construction work, instead of being alternated with each other, were correlated with other work, for illustrative or other purposes.

7) Arithmetic periods, thirty minutes in length.

8) Geography of alternate grades and history of consecutive grades are combined.

9) The school had in it forty pupils; fifteen in the beginners' and first grades; fifteen in the 2nd, 3rd and 4th grades; ten in the 5th, 6th and 7th grades.

10) The school nine months long.

11) The class reciting is in capitals in the program that follows.

More space is here given to this program than to any other, first, because of the general difficulty of making a program for a one-teacher school, and second, because of the high degree of success that attended the person who made and executed this program.

a. **Daily program. Rockford one-teacher school.**
(In Pulaski County, Virginia)

Time	Group A— GRADES: BEGINNERS AND FIRST	Group B— GRADES: 2ND, 3RD, 4TH	Group C— GRADES: 5TH, 6TH, 7TH
9:00	School opens	School opens	School opens
9:00 to 9:15	Opening exercises, participated in largely, and frequently conducted by the children.		
9:15	READING	Study reading lesson for today.	Study reading
9:35	Seat work in correlating with today's reading lesson, such as word or sentence building, with cards, writing, etc.	READING	Study reading or arithmetic.
9:55	Continuing the foregoing, plus drawing and use of word and letter boxes.	Number work or seat work, in correlation with today's reading.	READING
10:15	RECESS	RECESS	RECESS
10:30	Seat work in numbers, such as working little combination problems from board, making figures, etc.	Drawing or construction work.	ARITHMETIC
11:00	NUMBER WORK	Drawing or construction work.	Double period, Mon., Wed., Fri., Drawing or construction. Tues., Thurs.—boys, woodwork; girls, cooking or sewing.
11:30	Either copying examples from the board for next day or work examples in connection with today's lesson.	NUMBER WORK	
12:00	SUPERVISED LUNCH and SUPERVISED PLAY for all, 20 minutes each.		

Time	Group A	Group B	Group C
12:45	LANGUAGE	Studying spelling	Studying language
1:05	Drawing or construction	LANGUAGE	Studying history
1:25	Drawing or construction	Grades 2 and 3 doing seat work in correlation with language and Grade 4 studying geography.	LANGUAGE
1:45	MUSIC or WRITING for all.		
2:05	Drawing or writing, or copying, or construction.	Grades 2 and 3 doing seat work in correlation with language; Grade 4 studying geography.	HISTORY
2:25	RECESS FOR ALL THE CHILDREN.		
2:40	Optional or dismissed.	SPELLING	Studying spelling.
3:00		Grades 2 and 3, optional or dismissed; grade 4 studying geography.	SPELLING
3:20		Grades 4 and 6, GEOGRAPHY	Grades 5 and 7 studying geography.
3:40		Grades 4 and 6, optional or dismissed.	GEOGRAPHY for Grades 5 and 7

b. Program for a Two-Teacher School, as follows:
 (For the primary teacher, in charge of the first four of eight grades)

Time	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4
9:00	OPENING	OPENING	OPENING	OPENING
9:15	READING	Study	Study	Study
	& PHON.	Reading	Reading	Reading
9:35	Seat work	READING	READING	Study reading or arith.
9:55	Seat work	Study arith.	Study arith.	READING
10:15	RECESS	RECESS	RECESS	RECESS
10:30	READING	Study arith.	Study arith.	Study arith.
10:50	Seat work	ARITH.	ARITH.	Study arith. or geography
11:10	Seat work	Seat work	Seat work	ARITH.
11:30	NO. WORK	Seat work	Seat work	Study geog.
11:50	MUSIC or STORY	MUSIC or STORY	MUSIC or STORY	MUSIC or STORY
12:00	SUPERVISED LUNCH, twenty min.; VISED PLAY, thirty min.			SUPER-
12:50	BELL, to close recess.			
12:55	THE CHILDREN MARCH IN.			
1:00	LANGUAGE	LANGUAGE	Seat work	Study geog. or reading.
1:20	Seat work	Seat work	Seat work in prep. for lang.	GEOG.
1:40	WRITING or DRAW.	WRITING or DRAW.	WRITING or DRAW.	WRITING or DRAW.
2:00	Seat work	Seat work	LANGUAGE	LANGUAGE
2:20	RECESS	RECESS	RECESS	RECESS
2:35	NATURE STUDY FOR ALL FOUR GRADES			
2:55	READING	Study spell.	Study spell. or reading	Study spell. or reading
3:10	DISMISSED	SPELLING	Study spell. or reading	Study spell. or reading
3:25		DISMISSED	SPELLING	SPELLING
3:40			OPTIONAL or DISM.	OPTIONAL or DISM.
4:00	SCHOOL CLOSES FOR ALL GRADES AND ALL PUPILS			

Features of the program on page 304

1) The subjects printed in capitals are *reciting* at the time indicated.

2) Subjects printed at that time in capitals in two or more grades are taken together by all the grades in whose columns they come.

3) The first and second grades are dismissed earlier than the other two grades, in communities in which the small children do not have to wait for their larger brothers and sisters to take them home.

4) All periods, except for opening exercises, get twenty minutes.

5) Times for study and other seat work are indicated, as for the class reciting. The character of the seat work is a matter of the daily preparation of the teacher rather than that of program-making; hence, no more is here indicated. However, see "Educative Seat Work," in Chapter XXIV.

6) Provision is made for having one of the lighter subjects on one day and other on the next day, taking them alternately day by day, as "Writing or Drawing" and "Music or Story."

7) As careful provision is made for the supervision of the lunch and the play as for the subjects.

8) Not much home study is expected.

c. **Program for a Two-Teacher School**, as follows:
 (For the teacher in charge of grades 5, 6, 7, and 8
 of an 8-grade school)

Time	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8
9:00	OPENING EXERCISE	OPENING EXERCISE	OPENING EXERCISE	OPENING EXERCISE
9:15	History or hygiene	History or hygiene	HISTORY	HISTORY
9:35	LANGUAGE	LANGUAGE	Grammar	Grammar
9:55	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	GRAMMAR	GRAMMAR
10:15	RECESS	RECESS	RECESS	RECESS
11:30	ARITH.	ARITH.	Arithmetic	Arithmetic
11:00	Reading	Reading	ARITH.	ARITH.
11:30	READING	READING	Reading	Reading
11:50	MUSIC or PHYS. EX.	MUSIC or PHYS. EX.	MUSIC or PHYS. EX.	MUSIC or PHYS. EX.
12:00	SUPERVISED LUNCH FOR ALL THE FOUR GRADES, twenty minutes. SUPERVISED PLAY FOR ALL, thirty minutes.			
12:50	WARNING BELL RINGS.			
12:55	CHILDREN MARCH IN.			
1:00	GEOG.	Geography	GEOG.	Geography
1:20	Hist. or hyg.	GEOG.	History	GEOG.
1:40	WRITING or DRAW.	WRITING or DRAW.	WRITING or DRAW.	WRITING or DRAW.
2:00	HISTORY or HYG.	HISTORY or HYG.	Agr. or phys.	Agr. or phys.
2:20	RECESS	RECESS	RECESS	RECESS
2:35	Spelling	Spelling	AGRIC. or PHYS.	AGRIC. or PHYS.
2:55	SPELLING	SPELLING	Spelling	Spelling
3:15	Language	Language	SPELLING	SPELLING
3:35	GENERAL PROGRAM FOR ALL THE GRADES to be used for supervised study, for music, story, clearing up deficient work of pupils, as may seem best for the day.			
4:00	SCHOOL CLOSES FOR ALL GRADES AND FOR ALL PUPILS.			

Features of the above program:

- 1) Classes reciting, or exercising, are put in capitals.
- 2) The other classes indicated are studying the subjects listed at that time.
- 3) Alternation is indicated between subjects, as be-

tween "History or hygiene," "Writing or drawing," "Agriculture or physiology," "Music or Physical Exercise." This alternation may be from day to day or it may be for one subject for one half of the year and for the other subject the other half of the year.

4) Note full twenty minutes for spelling. This indicates the kind of spelling lesson indicated in the lesson plan on spelling in Chapter XIV.

5) Subjects in capitals for two grades or more for the same time are recited together as one class by the grades indicated.

6) See full provision for supervised lunch and for supervised play:

7) Home study expected.

d. Program for Three-Teacher School, as follows:

(For teacher in charge of the Grades 1 and 2)

Time	Grade 1	Grade 2
9:00	OPENING EXERCISES	OPENING EXERCISES
9:15	READING	Reading. Seat work.
9:35	Seat work	READING
9:55	MUSIC	MUSIC
10:15	RECESS	RECESS
10:30	NUMBER	Study, seat work.
10:50	Seat work	NUMBER
11:10	WRITING	WRITING
11:30	LANGUAGE	LANGUAGE
11:50	STORY	STORY
12:00	NOON: SUPERVISED LUNCH, 20 minutes; SUPERVISED PLAY, 30 minutes.	
12:50	WARNING BELL	
12:55	CHILDREN MARCH IN	
1:00	READING	Reading, seat work
1:20	Seat work	READING
1:40	DRAWING	DRAWING
2:00	SPELLING	Spelling
2:20	RECESS	RECESS
2:35	Seat work	SPELLING
2:55	OPTIONAL	OPTIONAL
3:15	DISMISSION	DISMISSION

Features of the program on page 307:

1) Classes reciting, or otherwise exercising, except in private seat work, are indicated in capitals.

2) Classes in capitals at the same time for both grades are for the whole room at the same time.

3) Where possible, the first two grades ought to be dismissed earlier than upper grades, one hour or more.

4) The teacher needs to make careful daily study for the administration of seat work.

5) No home study expected.

e. Program for Three-Room School, as follows:

(For teacher of grades 3, 4 and 5)

Time	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5
9:00	OPEN. EXER.	OPEN. EXER.	OPEN. EXER.
9:15	READING	Reading	Reading
9:35	Seat work	READING	Geography
9:55	Seat work	Arithmetic	GEOGRAPHY
10:15	RECESS	RECESS	RECESS
10:30	ARITHMETIC	Arithmetic	Arithmetic
10:50	Seat work	ARITHMETIC	Arithmetic
11:10	Seat work	Seat work	ARITHMETIC
11:30	WRITING or DRAW.	WRITING or DRAW.	WRITING or DRAW.
11:50	PRACTICE ON THE FUNDAMENTALS OF ARITHMETIC, FOR ALL THREE GRADES, 5 minutes.		
12:00	NOON: SUPERVISED LUNCH, 20 minutes; SUPERVISED PLAY, 30 minutes.		
12:50	WARNING BELL, FOR ALL GRADES.		
12:55	ALL MARCH IN		
1:00	LANGUAGE	LANGUAGE	Hist. or hyg.
1:20	Spelling	Spelling	HIST. or HYG.
1:40	SPELLING	SPELLING	Geography
2:00	Reading	Reading	GEOGRAPHY
2:20	RECESS	RECESS	RECESS
2:35	READING	Geography	Lang. or spell.
2:55	MUSIC	MUSIC	MUSIC
3:10	OPT. or DISM.	GEOGRAPHY	Language
3:51	-----	OPT. or DISM.	LANGUAGE
3:45			SPELLING
4:00	SCHOOL CLOSES FOR ALL GRADES AND FOR ALL PUPILS.		

Features of the program on page 308:

- 1) Classes reciting appear in capitals.
- 2) Combined classes appear in capitals for recitation at the same time in two or three grades.
- 3) The teacher may use her judgment about dismissing lower grades earlier, or in giving them additional work.
- 4) Alternation, by the half-year, or from day to day, is provided, as between "History or hygiene."
- 5) Some home study expected.

f. Program for a Three-Room School, as follows:

(For the teacher in charge of the room in which are the grades 6, 7 and 8)

Time	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8
9:00	OPEN. EXER.	OPEN. EXER.	OPEN. EXER.
9:15	READING	READING	Literature
9:35	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	LITERATURE
9:55	ARITHMETIC	Arithmetic	Arithmetic
10:15	RECESS	RECESS	RECESS
10:30	PRACTICE ON THE FUNDAMENTALS FOR ALL THREE GRADES, 5 minutes, in clear.		
10:40	History	ARITHMETIC	Arithmetic
11:00	History	History	ARITHMETIC
11:20	MUSIC or PHYS. EX.	MUSIC or PHYS. EX.	MUSIC or PHYS. EX.
11:35	HISTORY	HISTORY	History
12:00	NOON: SUPERVISED LUNCH FOR ALL PUPILS. SUPERVISED PLAY FOR ALL PUPILS.		
12:50	Warning bell		
12:55	Children march in.		
1:00	Language	Geography	HISTORY
1:20	LANGUAGE	Grammar	Grammar
1:40	DRAWING or WRITING	DRAWING or WRITING	DRAWING or WRITING
2:00	Geography	GRAMMAR	GRAMMAR
2:20	RECESS	RECESS	RECESS
2:35	GEOGRAPHY	GEOGRAPHY	Geography
2:55	Physiol. or civics or agriculture	Physiol. or civics or agriculture	GEOGRAPHY
3:15	PHYSIOL. or CIVICS or AGRIC.	PHYSIOL. or CIVICS or AGRIC.	PHYSIOL. or CIVICS or AGRIC.
3:35	SPELLING	SPELLING	SPELLING
4:00	DISMISSION	DISMISSION	DISMISSION

Features of the program on page 309:

- 1) Classes reciting are in capitals.
- 2) Combined classes are in capitals in two or three grades at the same time.
- 3) Alternation is seen in several places. This should be from day to day, except at 3:15. There these three subjects might be given in a three-year cycle: say, civics coming in the first year, physiology in the second year, and agriculture in the third year. All three grades take the subjects.
- 4) The practice in the fundamentals is placed here that the pupils may endeavor constantly to make the standard scores in arithmetic for their respective grades.
- 5) Home study expected.

g. Program for the grades 4, 5 and 6 in a school which has at least one teacher to each grade, but which is administered on a departmental basis.

Assumptions:

- 1) Teacher A teaches arithmetic, reading, music, physical education in these three grades; responsible for grade 4;
- 2) Teacher B teaches language, writing, drawing, spelling; responsible for grade 5;
- 3) Teacher C teaches geography, history, hygiene, civics; responsible for grade 6.

Time	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
9:00	OPEN. EXER.	OPEN. EXER.	OPEN. EXER.
9:15	ARITHMETIC	LANGUAGE	GEOGRAPHY
9:45	GEOGRAPHY	ARITHMETIC	LANGUAGE
10:15	RECESS	RECESS	RECESS
10:30	LANGUAGE	GEOGRAPHY	ARITHMETIC
11:00	READING	WRITING or DRAWING	HISTORY
11:30	HISTORY	READING	WRITING or DRAWING
12:00	Noon	Noon	Noon
1:00	SPELLING	HISTORY	READING
1:30	MUSIC or PHYS. ED.	(B)	HYGIENE or CIVICS
2:00	WRITING or DRAWING	MUSIC or PHYS. ED.	(C)
2:30	RECESS	RECESS	RECESS
2:45	HYGIENE or CIVICS	SPELLING	MUSIC or PHYS. ED.
3:15	(A)	HYGIENE or CIVICS	SPELLING
4:00	DISMISSION	DISMISSION	DISMISSION

Features of the above program:

1) Recitation periods are one half-hour; the teacher may use part of such time for supervised study.

2) Alternations in writing and drawing, and in music and physical education are from day to day; in hygiene and civics each is given a half-year at a time.

3) Teachers interchange rooms at end of each half-hour.

4) Teachers conduct opening exercises in their own rooms.

h. Program for small junior high school (Grades 7, 8 and 9).

(This program was worked out and used by Misses Ethel Garrett and Frances Lang, Critic Teachers, in the Belspring Rural Junior High School, Pulaski County, Virginia, one of the rural training schools of the Radford Normal System. It was the departmental

work of three grades by two teachers. The seventh grade sits in one room and the eighth and ninth grades sit in another. Classes reciting are in capitals; periods are 40 and 20 minutes.)

Time	Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 9
8:45	OPEN. EXER.	OPEN. EXER.	OPEN. EXER.
8:55	ENGLISH	ALGEBRA	Arithmetic
9:35	Spelling	ENGLISH	ARITHMETIC
10:15	SPELLING	Spelling	Spelling
10:30	RECESS	RECESS	RECESS
10:40	ARITHMETIC	History	ENGLISH
11:20	History	SPELLING 8 and 9, Mon., Wed. & Fri.	MUSIC 8 and 9, Tues. & Thurs.
11:40	WRIT., M., W., F.; MUSIC, T.Th.	WRIT., T., Th. PHYS. ED., M., W., F.	WRIT., T., Th. PHYS. ED., M., W., F.
12:00	NOON: SUPERVISED LUNCH, 20 minutes. SUPERVISED PLAY, 30 minutes.		
12:50	HISTORY	History	History
1:30	Hyg. or geog.	HISTORY	HISTORY
2:10	RECESS	RECESS	RECESS
2:20	HYGIENE or GEOGRAPHY	AGRIC. or MAN. TRAIN. (Boys in 8 and 9)	HOME ECO- NOMICS (Girls in 8 and 9)
3:00	English or Arithmetic	AGRIC. or MAN. TRAIN. (Boys in 8 and 9)	HOME ECO- NOMICS (Girls in 8 and 9)
3:40	DISMISSION		

Features of the program on page 313:

1) "SS" means supervised study of subject indicated.

2) The same subjects from the third grade up come at same time of day. This enables an irregular child to take a subject in a grade below or above his enrollment grade.

3) "MT" and "HE" mean *manual training* and *home economics* for boys and girls respectively. A two years' course may be had, taking place of *physiology* in grade 7. One teacher may take both sets of boys for *manual training*, and other both sets of girls for *home economics*.

4) As most periods are 30 minutes long, the teacher may use part of some periods for supervised study or individual help.

5) Alternation at 1:30 and 1:40 are from day to day, one subject one day, the other the next day.

6) "L. Play" means *lunch period; play*.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. What is a "Daily Program"?
2. What purposes does it serve?
3. What factors other than those listed in this chapter are important in making a program?
4. What difference is made in a program in accordance with—
 - a. The length of the school year?
 - b. The length of the school?
 - c. The grades, subjects, classes?
 - d. The provision for recreation?
 - e. The provision for study?
 - f. The provision for recesses?
5. How may classes be combined? Alternated?
6. What allowable variation for individual differences?
7. Criticize the author's proposal of a half-hour at close of day free of classes.
8. How would you use a daily program?
9. Take the "Sample Program" that most nearly fits the needs of your school. Revise it so as to make it supply your needs. Then show it to an experienced teacher or to your principal or to your superintendent for criticism. That will enable you to get your program in its best form.

CHAPTER XVII

ROUTINIZING MINOR DETAILS OF SCHOOL WORK

1. **What routinizing means.** This is to do in school life just what one does in individual life. For instance, one reduces the ways in which he makes the letters of the alphabet in his writing to a mere routine or habit. He makes a given letter in nearly the same way every time. When he was first taught to write, it required much attention to the process of making a certain letter to get it to be recognizable. After mastering the process of making, it ceased to be necessary to give attention to how to make the given letter. This left attention free to attack the larger problem of spelling the word, or of thinking the thoughts which were to go into the composition; habit, or routine, would take care of the form of each letter entering into each word.

In school life there are many little matters of mere procedure that, if reduced to routine, get out of the way of necessary attention and leave the pupils' minds free to attack the real content and processes of education. *Routinizing* means here, then, the taking of the minor processes of school life and reducing them to a routine which is, as far as possible, indiscriminatingly and mechanically regular. However, routine in school work is never to be sought for as an end in itself, but as a means of accomplishing the purpose of the school. It would, indeed, be very bad if all the work of the school room were reduced to routine. The larger factors of

the school room procedure must be left to judgment and initiative. *Beginning teachers* are hereby advised not to try to make all school work like that of a military machine. They are advised to pick out the minor details which constitute a large part of every day's work, regardless of the subjects studied, and to reduce them to a careful routine procedure, thus making possible a much more highly efficient work in the regular subjects. *This should be done right from the first day.*

2. Values of such routine.

a. Such routine, as here advocated, **saves time** for the more serious tasks of the school day. In the small matter of handing out papers, if the teacher must hand out every paper individually, much time is lost. By a careful routine procedure, the papers may all be passed out in a few seconds. So, for a score of other activities of the school room.

b. **It makes discipline easier.** Children are not usually impatient to get things done. The doing of things with dispatch helps to get children's interest and to hold them to their tasks. This is particularly true in the elementary schools.

c. **It stimulates better team work.** By having a method of working together, it is easy to work together. The doing of commonplace things in concert and the getting of them out of the way quickly helps children catch the spirit of the group action. It develops a higher sort of *esprit de corps*.

c. **It makes for law and order.** There is a constant demand, an unvarying need, for that sort of thing in human society. People who learned in the common school true team work with their fellows do not defy the laws of their country nor try to overthrow its order. There is a certain common social discipline to which

every child is entitled and from the lack of which, if he fail to get it, he will suffer in the years to come.

e. **It leaves time for the exercise of judgment and initiative**, which after all is the important work of the school. When the minor, but necessary, details are efficiently and systematically got out of the way, the mind is in better condition and the social atmosphere is clarified for accomplishing the real purposes of the school.

f. **It gives to visitors a measure of a teacher's efficiency.** When parents or other visitors are present in the school room and see the teacher dispatch the minor details of the program with ease and with system, such visitors go away with a high opinion of that teacher's efficiency. A teacher may do the classwork very well and yet fail in the estimate of the patrons, if the detailed procedures of the school room be conducted in a haphazard way.

g. **It becomes self-regulative.** It moves in a machine-like way. You do not have to be constantly giving directions about the procedures in question.

3. Conditions of successful routine.

a. The children must have a *clear idea* of the procedure to be routinized and the *purpose* of it. The teacher may demonstrate the value and purpose of procedure. In the matter of handing out corrected spelling papers, for instance, the teacher can have the children note how long it takes to do this on an individual basis. Then she may pass them out in a carefully routinized way, enabling the children to see how much time is saved and how much more easily the whole task is accomplished. The routinized procedures do not need to be *imposed from without*, if the teacher but develop *from within* the pupils' own experience a feeling of a need that some things may best be routinized. It may

be so developed, if the teacher will take the children into his or her confidence and discuss these matters with them. The children may be easily led to see the reason for any needful routine.

b. **Explanation of, or experimentation as to, the best way.** When a routine method is adopted, you want to be sure that the children see in it the best way to do the thing. Though you may know the best way yourself, you may sometimes conduct an experiment to see which of two or more procedures is the best. If that is not feasible, an explanation of just how to go through their part is necessary that the children may conform properly. While the teacher may *experiment* as to the best method of passing papers, she may *discuss* the best way to go through a fire drill.

c. **Performance with attention and accuracy until the task is routinized.** Every child must give attention to the signals. Your success in getting your children to the board will be thwarted, if three or four children disregard the method and swagger to the board. Attention is a requisite for success in the initial stages of teaching a new group habit. The act must be performed accurately until automatism results. Bagley states the law of habit in substance thus: *Repetition with attention, permitting no exceptions.*

d. **No variation.** "Be sure you are right and then go ahead," and there will be no need to vary. If papers are to be collected in a certain way, let them be collected that way and not some other way. If a certain procedure for marching in and out is adopted, the children should march in and out that way—not some other way—unless conditions of weather, or the like, force the teacher to adopt some other way for that day. Begin as you can hold out, and hold out as you begin, in the minor details of school work which you are re-

ducing to routine. *Insist* on the way which you have found to be best; *persist* until it is the established way of your school. Of course, you have to be tactful. You do not have to be tactless in order to get what is good established. If error occur, correct it at once. Do not permit carelessness and swaggering. Attention and effort at control will gradually become less exacting.

4. **Items of management reducible to routine.** Not all items should be, or can well be, routinized. The major factors of school management and control must always be retained for decision and execution upon the basis of sound judgment. The minor ones may be practically eliminated from attention and effort by effective routine.

a. **The daily program.** As shown in the preceding chapter, here is the first item of routine. When there is a well-made program, follow it tenaciously except, of course, when peculiar circumstances demand a change. Such demands do not come often. It is not well to be making a new program, or remaking an old one, every day. Establish a program; follow it, so as to leave your attention free for the other problems of school control. Of course, it requires very great care, attention and judgment, to make a good program; but, when it is finished, it becomes a guide for you.

b. **The passing of lines into, and out of, the room.** Here the children line up at the appointed place near the entrance and march in, keeping step; or they line up in the room according to plan and march out. They may keep step at counting, as "one," "two," "one," "two," and so on, the children putting their left feet down on "one." The teacher may tap a bell and the children put down their left feet at each tap. In such cases the teacher must not count too fast, or tap her bell too fast. She may have a pupil play a good march

at the piano. She may use a Victrola with good march records. The best marching will come when the children learn to appreciate the good form of their lines and do their parts with a minimum of direction. However, the lines must not be left unsupervised. Do not expect children to become angels at any time. They are true to human nature. Do not permit them to run up or down steps. A child who persists in running may well be denied for a time the privilege of marching with his fellows and required to march alone in proper way. One boy who regularly pretended to forget and ran down stairs every marching out time, and who was not corrected by marching alone once each time, was finally permanently corrected, when confronted with a requirement to march down properly, alone, for fifty times. He did not forget again.

c. Passing to and from the recitation seats. The children must be instructed how to approach and how to leave the recitation seats. For example, if the schedule be crowded, some time may be conserved by having the children leave the recitation seats, say, to the right, while the next class comes in to these seats by the left. Thus there is no collision or confusion. Signals may be employed, which all understand and obey immediately and simultaneously.

d. Passing to the blackboard. This is much the same procedure as explained in the preceding paragraph. Nevertheless, in large classes, only a part of the class can be sent to the board, at once, for lack of board space. The class may be divided into two or three groups, as 1's, 2's, 3's. The 1's may go to the board one time; the 2's next, etc. Certain signals may be employed to expedite the passing to and from the board. It is also well to have certain spaces at the board assigned to individuals; this appoints unto each

one the place at which he is to work and prevents each pupil from encroaching upon the rights of others. Instructions should be given the children as to the right way to use the board to enhance the neatness, the appearance, the attractiveness of the board, and to present the pupils' own work effectively.

e. Distributing materials. This may be done (1) by use of monitors. Either the first or last child in each row, or a certain one chosen for a certain excellence, serves as monitor for a certain row. To each monitor is assigned the task of distributing materials to the other children in his row. If books are furnished by this school, he distributes them to his group. It is the monitor's task to distribute papers, pens, ink, tablets, writing books, or anything else needing to be distributed. The teacher may have a different person for monitor for each thing to be given out. Materials may be distributed (2) in this way: Sheets of paper, used for drawing or copying, and the like, may be placed in sufficient quantity on each front desk by the teacher. The first child takes one and passes the rest back, each child taking one as the package passes back. The last child brings to the front all left over, after he has taken one.

f. Collecting materials. Commencing at the rear, at a given signal, the child sitting in the last seat, having put his name at the top of his unfolded paper, as all others in obedience to instructions have done, passes it to the child in front of him. The latter child puts his own on top and passes forward, each child putting his own on top, as the pile passes up. This keeps all the papers in the order in which the children sit, the top paper belonging to the front child. If the teacher keeps the papers that way, they may be passed back after correction just as easily. When the papers have

arrived at the front, each front child may act as a monitor and bring the papers to the teacher's desk; or these front children may pass them across the front from the teacher's left to her right, each child, after the first, putting his pile of papers on top. Thus the unfolded papers are collected orderly, systematically and quickly, and the children's individualities are not stifled by the process. Books, scissors, ink and most materials, except papers, may best be collected by monitors. There may, however, be prepared a board, having holes in it, into which pupils may put their penholders, if it be desired to collect them. Also a box for each row may be passed back for scissors, or other materials.

g. Arrangement of books and other materials in or on the desk. When pupils arrive in the morning, they should arrange their books in a certain order in their desks. The books could be placed in a pile on the left side of each child's desk, in the order of the needs during the day for each book. The book needed first in the day would be on top of the pile, the next second, and so on, down. As a pupil finishes with a book, he starts a new pile on the right side. This may be so routinized that, at a given signal, the pupil's hand goes right to the next book needed, even without the pupil's looking.

The teacher also should practice a systematic, routine way of managing the books and materials on his or her desk. Sometimes, visitors infer that the teacher is very careless, merely from the way his or her desk is kept.

h. Tidiness through routine.

1) In the disposition of waste papers, children should be definitely and effectively instructed against wadding them up and putting them either upon the floor or into their desks. Each one may take a small, neatly planed bit of board four inches square, (even a piece of paste-board may be used), put a wire nail through the bottom,

and place it upon his or her desk as a file upon which he can hang the waste paper until a monitor passes the waste-basket. Then each pupil will put his or her waste paper into the basket.

2) Each child should be instructed to sharpen, before school or at recess, sufficient pencils to last him. This should be done outside of the room that the floors may not be littered. A pupil who is careless and neglects this will become careful, if not permitted to borrow a pencil or to sharpen his pencil during school, and if required to do the work later.

3) If ink wells be in the pupils' desks, the ink should be replenished at stated intervals by a careful monitor, who makes it a point to spill no ink either on the floor or on a pupil's desk. He may regularly put an absorbent paper under his bottle, to be sure that no wasted drops soil the floor or the furniture. If pupils furnish their own ink, each one should put his name on a slip of paper and paste this slip to his bottle. There should be a board or side table on which all the ink bottles are to be placed. At a signal, the children go around in single file and put their bottles on the table. They get them, at next working lesson, in the same way. For individual writing, a pupil may get his ink by a signal to the teacher.

4) The papers handed in to the teacher may have their tidiness enhanced, if the children conform to certain rules. The teacher may require a careless child, politely, of course, to have his paper right before she receives it. For example, if the papers are to be one page, have each child (1) write his name at the right-hand top of the page; (2) preserve a margin of one-half inch at the left; (3) indent the paragraphs one inch; (4) leave the paper flat, not folded; and (5) conform to other reasonable requirements. If the papers are to be more than

one page, (1) they should be folded once vertically; (2) with the edges toward the right, the pupil should write on the outside (a) his name, (b) his subject, (c) the date. If this be required, and all children prepare their papers according to such a standard form, it renders the teacher's work in checking up such papers more rapid and efficient. Such care also renders the papers more tidy in appearance.

i. **Looking over papers.** A teacher makes his or her work go better in this task if he but take a moment and routinize the task. For example, if the children's papers have been taken up, as suggested in paragraph f, in this section of the chapter, they are then in easy order to be handed back. They may be kept in this order, if, when the top paper has been looked over, it may be laid with its face down. Let each one in its order be placed on the new pile with its face down. When all are looked over, the whole pile may be turned over and all the papers are in just the order in which they were handed in.

When looking over examination papers, if the teacher will first examine the questions and determine just the answer which she expects, it will aid her in checking up the children's answers.

j. **Getting water.** In the old-time school certain boys were permitted to take the bucket and pass the water around to all the children, all drinking in turn from the common dipper. "May I pass the water?" was a frequent request from an energetic boy. It is not necessary that children get water during the school hours. Children should get a drink before school opens. At recess, require that all who want a drink line up the first thing and pass in orderly fashion, with their *individual cups*, by the bucket or cooler or fountain, for their drinks. Supervise this. Monitors may aid here

in water distribution. If children put off their drink till the close of recess, there is not time for all to get a drink. Routinize the drinking at the beginning of the recess, in an orderly way, and most of the trouble is eliminated.

k. **Being excused from the room.** This is a troublesome item of management. It cannot be wholly reduced to routine. There are personal factors involved that require careful consideration and management. Ordinarily, a pupil should not be excused from the room more than once between opening and recess, or between recesses, except in cases of sickness. If a child regularly requests to be excused oftener, it is well to take the matter up with the child's parents, or require a physician's excuse. Also, it is not usual for more than one child of each sex to be excused from the room at a time. Yet that, if enforced literally all the time, would sooner or later result badly. If certain children become annoying in their persistent requests to leave the room, the teacher should have a private personal conference with them, telling them of the trouble caused and asking them whether it really is necessary to leave the room so frequently. Such conferences sometimes reveal to the teacher that frequent leaving of the room is necessary; at other times, diminution of excuses results.

It is not necessary for each child to speak out to ask the teacher for permission to leave the room. The request may be reduced to routine this way: The child holds up his hand with all but one finger closed, which means, "May I be excused from the room?" The teacher, though in the midst of a class, sees the request and bows her head "Yes," or shakes her head "No," as circumstances may warrant.

l. **Distributing and collecting wraps and hats.** It is not the best, for hygienic reasons, to use monitors for

this purpose. Such a method disseminates insects and disease germs. This necessary disposition of hats and wraps is better thus: When the children have marched in, they may remain standing at their seats. The teacher, by signal, may have one row at a time proceed to the cloak closet and there hang up hats, cloaks and coats, each child on his own hanger. When the children are ready to leave the room at recess, noon, or dismissal, each child may in a similar manner get his own hat and coat. This closet in which such things are placed should, during school hours, be locked at its outside door, if it have such. To leave an outside door to the closet open during school hours is to offer to some of those excused during school too much of a temptation to pilfering which sometimes leads to theft.

m. Greeting visitors. The children should have received some instructions as to proper public deportment toward visitors who may come in during school hours. No special instructions need apply to other teachers or officers of the school. It gives school officers and teachers from other schools, and parents, a happy feeling to be graciously received by the teacher and children of a given school.

When a visitor comes in, the teacher may greet him or her pleasantly, and then turn to the children and say, "Eleven." At this signal all the children rise. The teacher says, "This is Mrs. Harmon, who has come to visit us." The children say in concert, "We are glad to see you." The children remain standing until the teacher has shown the visitor to a seat. Immediately then the children seat themselves and resume their work.

n. Fire drills. Notwithstanding the very certain advance and improvement in school architecture in recent years, frequent fire drills are still needed that children may be expeditiously managed and their lives

saved in case a fire should ever come. It is better to put children through a thousand fire drills, in preparation for a fire which will never come, than to omit the fire drills altogether and then your children become the victims of a Collinwood.

The way to bring it about is to explain very carefully to the children that you are going to have fire drills at least once a month; that, at such time, they are to line up and march out in just the same way that they do at recess; that the difference will be that the signal will be given right in the midst of school instead of at the recess period; that, when they shall have marched out, they will immediately, without breaking lines, come right back again; that, if a real fire were to come, then they would not march back; that they are not to rush any more than they do when going out at the ordinary recess period. The first time you have a fire drill, it is well to announce to the children the day on which to expect it. After that, it should come unexpectedly. The children should be given the signal for the fire drill. It may be three taps of the gong; or three taps of the drum; or three chords on the piano; or any other signal that harmonizes with your system of signals. After the children get used to the fire drill, it will be well to set a certain day and tell the children that they are to have a fire drill with smoke, and play that there is a real fire. This will keep them from being frightened. The janitor can take an old cloth that will burn slowly and make lots of smoke to pass through the corridors and rooms. After that, you can tell the children that sometimes you will have smoke and sometimes you will not. Then, if you should ever have a real fire there will be absolutely no panic on the children's part. In case you have stairways, it is well to practice at different times the use or the neglect of certain stairways. This

will prepare you for taking care of the situation if there should ever be a real fire, which was actually burning a flight of stairs before you discovered it. It is also well that the children should in a fire drill sing, as they march out. There is probably no better antidote to panic than song. Once a fire broke out in a theater. The people were rushing in mad panic to the door. A man saw that many lives would be lost in that way. He jumped upon the stage, and began to sing, "My Country, 'tis of thee . . ." He soon had their attention and the people passed out without accident. You might choose a good march song, have all the children learn it, and then keep it to sing only when marching out at fire drill. All this means determining in advance how to manage with system a difficult situation that is a possible one.

All doors, both outside doors and room doors, should open outward. Certain children should be appointed to be responsible for having the doors open. The children should not be permitted to run at fire drills, as they are not at other marching.

5. Signals. In taking care of these minor details, which are to be reduced to a routine procedure, some of them may best be administered through a system of signals. Such signals enable the teacher to express a whole sentence in just a word or syllable. It makes it necessary for the children to concentrate their attention upon the signal, interpret its meaning, and perform the action indicated. It makes simultaneous and uniform group action easy.

The following list of signals is made up in groups of 10's and is therefore quite easily remembered. By this arrangement, it is found that children have them mastered, for the most part, while the teacher is explaining them; certainly by a second rehearsal.

a. **First ten. Book drills**, at seat, when books are to be taken from, or placed into, the desks by the children; the teacher calls the number and the children do the act indicated:

1) Pupils lay hands on books in desk;

2) Take books out;

3) Lay on desk;

4) Open books. Thus all the noise and confusion of a long-drawn-out taking of books from the desk is over in a few seconds. When the books are ready to be put back into the desks, use the following:

5) Books closed;

6) Put books in desk;

7) (At close of day) Put books in satchel or book sack or book strap.

b. **Second ten. Movement drills.**

(The children at seats to be sent to board.)

10) Face aisle, right or left, as case may require;

11) Rise;

12) Face board;

13) Forward to board;

14) (If needed) Erase board;

15) Begin work.

If the children are at the recitation seats and are to be sent to the board, use 11), 12), 13), 14) and 15).

If the children are at their seats, and are to come to the recitation seats, the teacher will use the following signals:

10) Face aisle;

11) Rise;

12) Face recitation seats;

13) Forward;

19) Be seated.

If the children are at their seats and ready to march

out at recess, at close of day, or at fire drill, the teacher may use the following:

- 10) Face aisle;
- 11) Rise;
- 12) Face door;
- 13) Forward.

When they are out, the teacher may say, "Break ranks," and the children disperse.

If the children are at the recitation seats and are ready to return to their own desks, the teacher may use the following:

- 11) Rise;
- 13) Forward to their own seats;
- 19) Be seated.

If they are at the board and ready to return to their own desks:

- 13) Forward to your desks;
- 19) Be seated.

When they line up to march in, use the following:

- 13) Forward to your desks and remain standing;
- 18) (To one row at a time) Hang up your hats and coats (till all have done so).
- 19) Be seated.

c. **Third ten. Control signals.** These are used at times, when the children may become somewhat noisy, or when the teacher is getting ready to make an announcement and has some trouble in getting attention. When the children are noisy, the teacher must not stand there for ten minutes, letting them be noisy and waiting for them to become quiet. Let control signals be used to get attention and quiet at once. Their effect is marvelous, if quick, simultaneous, uniform response to all such signals be required, as follows:

- 20) Arms folded;
- 21) Hands clasped on lap;

- 22) Hands joined back of head;
- 23) Hands on desk;
- 24) Hands held high over head;
- 25) Eyes on teacher.

In a room in which discipline is bad signal 22 is a means of effective control. It clasps a child's hands back of his own head, in which position he can not shoot spitballs, nor strike his neighbor over the head, nor turn his head to one side to make faces at other children.

d. Fourth ten. Passing papers.

- 30) Everybody get ready to pass papers;

31) Pass forward (or backward, as the case may require). Competition may be ever present here, to ascertain which row of pupils will get their papers forward to front in right condition first each time.

e. Permission signals. Here the child holds up his hand, showing so many fingers. Each number of fingers showing indicates a certain request, which the teacher may or may not grant by a nod of the head. The hand showing with—

- 1) 1 finger. "May I be excused from the room?"
- 2) 2 fingers. "May I pass the waste basket?"
- 3) 3 fingers. "May I get my ink?"
- 4) The whole hand—

a) at recitation, "May I stand and answer the question, or talk to teacher and to class?"

- b) at seat, other times, "May I speak to teacher?"

The foregoing signals and others like them enable many small items of control, that consume time rapidly and wear on the teacher's and children's nerves needlessly, to be cared for in a few seconds or a few minutes. The teacher calls the number; the children do the act indicated. They are quickly mastered by children. They eliminate noise that interferes with children's right to an opportunity for quiet and undisturbed at-

tempts to get an education. Instead of minor things taking a great part of the day, they are quickly and effectively disposed of and the day is thus left for the play of purpose and judgment, and of individuality and initiative. The great factors of teaching and management come to have a better opportunity for expression by reason of the routinizing through signals of the items covered. Instead of stifling individuality, routine makes possible the realizing of true individuality. Individuality is not best realized by fussing over the little things of school life, but through exercise in the major things, after the little ones have been routinized out of the way.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. What is meant by *routinizing* certain parts of school work?
2. What values given by the author are real? What others occur to you, which have not been listed?
3. Criticize each condition of successful routine, favorably and unfavorably.
4. Study the list of "Items of management reducible to rou-

tine," to determine whether you would reduce the list or enlarge it. Consider each item separately. Give your reason in each case for any enlargement or reduction.

5. Study each item proposed to be reduced to routine, to determine whether the author has suggested the best way of handling just that thing in the school with which you are familiar. Revise the suggestions given here, so as to make them effective in just the school condition with which you are familiar.
6. What are the advantages of a list of well-understood signals? Disadvantages? Make for yourself a list of signals that will meet the requirements in the school in which you are familiar. Write them down and show them to three other teachers for their criticism.
7. Resolved, "That any system of routinizing any of the items of school management or any use of signals with which to administer that routine is destructive of children's individuality and wholly unjustifiable." Take whichever side you think is right and debate it with anyone who will argue with you. Formulate your reasons as carefully as possible.

CHAPTER XVIII

HYGIENIZING THE SCHOOL—1

1. **What hygienizing means.** Literally it means *health-producing* and *health-conserving*. Actively it means, on the part of the teacher, much careful planning and conscientious execution. Physical education is fundamental to all other types and phases of education. Children must live before they can learn. They cannot learn efficiently unless they have healthy bodies. The whole problem of *hygienizing* a school will not here be discussed. Those phases of it which are clearly within the control of boards and superintendents will be omitted. The discussion here is not even exhaustive for teachers. It is intended to put at the disposal of *beginning teachers* just the instruction needed in making a good start. The beginning teacher should read one or more books on this subject, or, better still, take a course in *school hygiene and sanitation*, if this has not already been done. Consult the *references for further reading* at the close of this chapter.

The *beginning teacher* needs to start out with the realization that a large part of good management of a school is the *hygienizing of the school*. No one can be a good school manager and neglect the hygiene of school life. The school cannot be *hygienized* and left to stay that way. It will not stay so. The teacher must be continually at it. It is not a product, but a process which results in desirable products. So let the *beginning teacher* start in with a purpose and with a

determination that, as far as he or she knows how to do it, the school shall be hygienized.

Twenty-six items of school management, involving the *hygiene* of school life, will here be listed and explained briefly and simply.

2. Items of school management involving hygiene.

a. Cleanliness of classroom. This includes everything in the room as well. The floor must not be left to accumulate several months' dirt brought in on the shoes of the children. Let the teacher see that the floor is really cleaned sufficiently often to keep it decent—cleaned otherwise than swept. The floor must be swept every day. If the floor be oiled with a good quality of oil, or if a sweeping compound be sprinkled on the floor before sweeping, dust will not rise. A bristle brush is best for sweeping purposes. If the school is in a well administered system, much of what is here said will be taken care of by persons chosen for the purpose. In other schools the teacher must know what is needed and proceed to get it done. Dry sweeping, which causes the dust to rise, should not be permitted.

The desks need to be dusted off daily, but not with a feather duster. Use a chemically treated dust-cloth, which will remove the dust without fogging it. The cloth can be washed several times without removing the qualities that take up the dust.

The windows need to be washed occasionally to make the panes clean, clear and decent. The blackboards should be erased at the close of each day, except in rare cases in which board matter is carried over to the next day. Washing the boards is not the best way to clean them and at the same time protect the boards. If they are erased daily with clean erasers, they will be kept clean. Written matter kept long on them is hard to

erase. The chalk troughs should be brushed out daily. The accumulation of chalk dust is deleterious to the health of pupils and teacher, especially in cases of weak lungs. The erasers should be taken away out from the room where the wind may drive the dust away. Thus the chalk dust is not breathed in. A small cleaner for erasers, with a revolving brush, may be purchased at little cost. Children should not be permitted to clean erasers by beating two together. The walls and corners of the room must be dusted down occasionally. Under no circumstances permit webs to accumulate on the walls.

Tables, chairs, flower stands, and other furniture need to be rubbed off occasionally with the dustcloth. The radiators should be kept clear of dust. If there is a stove, it should not only be rubbed off, but polished as well, occasionally. In the case of the stove, in making or replenishing the fire, ashes, trash, coals and the like, must not be left on the floor. Such is not only uncleanly, but positively untidy and dangerous. Keep the library cleaned up and the books so arranged as to give a tidy appearance.

The author visited a school in which the children had been so imbued with the ideas of cleanliness and tidiness that, apparently, every child was on the lookout for everything uncleanly and untidy. For a child to see a piece of paper on the ground was for him to run for it and remove it at once. A true living-up to the principle of cleanliness involves a truly clean classroom with its walls, its furniture, its windows, its boards, its floors—everything—clear of dirt and exhibiting the appearance of cleanliness. It also means school grounds with no rubbish and untidy objects of waste. "Cleanliness is next to godliness," and also one of the factors of success in a well managed school.

b. Personal neatness and cleanliness of pupils and their belongings. Children who are well-trained come to school with clean hands, clean faces and combed hair. If any pupils do not come thus, the teacher must gradually, tactfully and soon introduce the requirement. There should be at the school facilities for the children to wash their hands, before lunch, after playing, after going to the toilet, and after the handling of anything that may not be clean. There must be no "common towel." A good plan is to get a roll of paper towels. The children need soap for this bathing purpose, but not a "common" piece which every one uses. One teacher in a one-room school procured one dozen wash-pans and had a bench erected near the cistern, so that a third of her school might wash their hands at once. This process she supervised just before lunch. Monitors were appointed to put water into the pans, as each group came. The children brought individual towels from home.

The children are to be taught that putting pencils in the mouth is filthy; that diseases may be transmitted by a pupil's putting a borrowed pencil into his mouth; that for the same reason two or more children should never bite the same piece of fruit or food; that they should not bite or lick their desks. Books may be kept clean by putting on a cloth or paper cover, which may be replaced occasionally. Many pupils keep their desk clean, free of pencil marks or knife cuts, by putting on it a blotter or other paper big enough to cover its top. If the school furnishes books, at the close of the session all the covers should be removed and burned, and the books should be fumigated. Formaldehyde candles or other disinfecting utensils and materials for the latter purpose may be purchased at drug stores.

Attention needs to be paid to children's dress. This

is not to make any requirement as to the kind and quality of clothing children wear. It is to require that children pay some attention to the manner and the condition in which their clothes are worn. Some children cannot help wearing patched, or even ragged, clothes. The cause is in the parents, not in these children. However that may be, a boy should not be permitted to go through the day with one side of his coat collar turned inside, or with his shoes untied. Other slovenly habits in either boys or girls in the way of wearing their clothes should be broken up. We cannot and should not prescribe the kind of clothes which the children shall wear. We can and should require, tactfully of course, that they make themselves look as well as possible, in what they do have to wear.

To enable the children to avoid bringing mud into the house a scraper for shoes should be put at the steps and a doormat at each door; and the children should rub off their shoes each time they come in. As flies and mosquitoes are no respecters of persons or houses, it is important to have school rooms screened, as to have home rooms screened.

c. The water supply. It will not be permitted, of course, that children drink from the same drinking cup. Such a procedure transmits from one child to the other the germs of mumps, scarlet fever, diphtheria, sore throat, colds, whooping cough, tuberculosis and other diseases. The individual drinking cup, while not subjecting the children to the dangers just mentioned, must be washed daily with hot water, to keep it clean. The best way is to have a bubbling fountain. This may be attached to your water system if you have it. If you do not have a regular public water system, a small bubbling fountain can be purchased at not much cost and attached to a tank or a cooler. By a little

pressure at the right point on it, the water bubbles up and can be drunk by the children with ease. In this case, there needs to be placed a bucket or other receptacle to catch the waste water, or the floor will soon be in bad condition. Bubbling fountains must not be placed too high for small children, nor too low for large ones. One such fountain for twenty-five children should be the minimum equipment for this purpose. The use of the fountain at recess times should be supervised. The children may line up and each take his turn, in order, to get a drink. Otherwise, the children will push each other, or press the drinking child's mouth down upon the nozzle, and cause trouble and loss of time.

The teacher needs to give attention to the source of water itself. If the town, or city, or other water system be used, the water is presumably all right. If there is a well on the school grounds, see that waste water will drain away from the well and not back into the well. The well should be cleaned out just before school opens. It should be covered over so that passers-by at night may not be tempted to throw into the well frogs, cats, fruit peelings or other foul things. The well should really be in a little wellhouse which could be locked each night. The children must not be permitted to drink from the well bucket, nor to let the drippings from their dirty hands fall back into the well. A better arrangement is a pump, with the well so shut in that it is not easy for children to do anything other than draw the water. If the water supply comes from a spring, you want yourself to examine the spring. See if there are pig pens, or toilets, or other sources of filth above the spring. The water that comes from a spring may be the cleanest ever, or it may be foul enough to give every member of the school a death-producing disease. There is a responsibility here. It is as much the

teacher's duty to see that the children do not drink poisonous water, as to see that they do not eat poisonous food.

d. **The lunch period.** The best thing would be for the school to arrange that the children may have warm lunch at school, prepared at school. People who work in the regular vocations feel the need of warm lunch at noon. The children are engaged in the serious vocation of getting an education. They will certainly do better work after a warm lunch. Some schools arrange to have one warm article of food prepared there. The thing or things thus provided are prepared at recess or before school and are cooked on the stove, as school goes on, some of the larger girls supervising it under the teacher's direction.

Even if there be no warm lunch, the lunch period needs to be supervised. At noon recess let the children line up and proceed to the bench at which you have a sufficient supply of washpans, or washbowls, to wash their hands. Let them return to the seats. Before they begin, the teacher may ask a blessing one day; the children may take their turn day by day in doing this. The children then proceed to eat their lunch slowly, talking much as they would do at their own homes. At least fifteen minutes are thus spent, and the children chew well their food instead of swallowing it down quickly, without chewing, in order to run to play. Twenty minutes thus spent are well spent. The children may learn good table manners at the same time.

e. **Play.** Everyone needs to learn how to play. To be sure, play comes naturally, but sometimes the very environment or requirements of our lives operate to inhibit this tendency which should perform such a useful function in our lives. Small children play with greater ease than larger ones, as the inhibiting forces

have not exercised as yet a very great influence in the lives of these children. One day the author visited a school in which the larger children seemed not to know anything to do at recess time. He said to them, "Why don't you get out here and play something?" They replied, "We do not know anything to play but baseball. We have played that till we are tired of it." He said, "Come out here and I will teach you a new game." They came willingly and soon were joyously playing "Prisoners' Base." You wish to remember that education is not only physical, intellectual, moral, vocational, civic, religious; it is recreational as well. Recreation is a fundamental need in life. This is a part of the children's education. The teacher is not merely an interpreter of books for the children. She is an educator for them. That in the ordinary public school does not mean just one kind of educator; it means all kinds. The teacher must help give the children a recreational education as well as the other kinds.

At the recess time the teacher will get out on the school grounds and supervise the children's play. You say that is none of your business? Well, then, you should resign your position; for you have no business in the school if you are unwilling to help the children get a recreational or avocational education. In fact, you cannot hope to succeed long as a teacher if you neglect this phase of education. You need it for the children; you need it for yourself. On the side of recreation you can help the children learn how to play. You can learn many new games and can teach them to the children. You can find them described in Bancroft's *Games for Home and the School*, which should be in every school library. On the moral side you can get into the children's lives thus and exert an influence which you can never exert in the schoolroom. On the

discipline side you will so learn the children's individual natures that control of these children will be easy. You will be able to prevent in the very inception many of the troubles that are difficult to adjust later. The children will not use profanity or vulgarity, nor will they often fight in the teacher's presence. The teacher's presence on the playground eliminates nearly all the troubles between children. You do not need to play all the games yourself. Occasionally it is permissible to join in, but not enough to overwork yourself. You are a leader and director of the children's games; but not a dictator. It is better to neglect looking over papers than to neglect play supervision.

It is well to take the initiative, if there be no play apparatus, to procure such for the school. Such equipment as may make possible the playing of baseball, basketball, volleyball; slides, swings, sandbins, race tracks, croquet sets—any of these that you may get for your school enhances the effectiveness of your school life just so much. These, if all purchased, will cost much money. At New River, Pulaski County, Virginia, a three-room school, the citizens came together, after they had discussed the matter in their School League, and erected one day most of the major things enumerated above. The cost was little; yet thereafter the children had the benefit of them. In the absence of apparatus, do not wait; there are hundreds of games which can be played without apparatus. Teach them, and let the children begin playing them.

Some recreation in the schoolroom is possible; it is permissible sometimes to permit a good laugh. In the primary grades some lessons may be played, in reading, number work, and so on. Between classes or even in the midst of a class a bit of recreation may be had, through use of a song or of certain quick, easy physical exer-

cises, or through the taking of a few deep breaths. It is well to have a regular period during the day for setting up drills, say, for fifteen minutes.

f. **Posture.** This has reference to the way in which children sit, or stand, or walk. The desk should be of such a height as to encourage correct sitting. The slope of the desk now most used actually does encourage a bad sitting posture. The child either leans over on the desk, when the book lies flat on the desk, or slides under the desk, when he has the book stand vertically on the desk, in order to make the line of his vision hit the book at right angles. This purpose may be realized if the child will place one or two books on the desk and then lean the one which he is studying against this pile and hold it there. Comfortable reading is not had unless the line of vision does strike the book at about right angles. The desk should be adjusted to the child in height of desk and seat, and in distance apart of the two desks, to encourage better sitting posture. The seats should be sufficiently high to enable the children to have their feet flat on the floor. Their desks should be just high enough for them to write without bending down or raising one shoulder too high. The desks should be just far enough apart that the rear of the top of the desk should reach over the front of the seat about one and one-half inches. In case the desks are to be arranged, you supervise the placing of them yourself to get them right. Do not have a large boy sit in a small desk, nor a small boy sit in a large desk, because their sizes do not correlate with their grading. At recitation seats the children should sit up straight and not lounge against each other. When the children stand to recite, have them stand erect, as ladies and gentlemen of grace and culture. They should not stand bent over, half-erect, leaning against the wall or a desk.

and the like. When they walk, have them throw their shoulders back, their breasts forward, and face the world with a smile, with optimism and enthusiasm.

g. Contagious diseases. You are to take every precaution to prevent the spread of contagious or infectious diseases. If specific rules or regulations are provided by the Board of Health, follow these literally. In the absence of these, follow any rules that your school board or your superintendent may require. Inform yourself as soon as possible just what the laws of your state are in this respect. If your State Board of Health issues a bulletin regularly, have your name placed on the mailing list so that it may come to you regularly.

Ordinarily, children having such diseases as measles, mumps, smallpox, chicken pox, whooping cough, tuberculosis, diphtheria, scarlet fever, "pink eye" and other contagious or infectious diseases, are excluded from the school until ten to fifteen days after such children are pronounced well. It is also often a requirement that the homes in which such diseases appear shall be quarantined and that children may not come to school from those homes, as long as anyone there has a contagious or infectious disease. In some states, if a teacher fails knowingly to enforce this law he or she is subject to a fine. Also some school systems require that children shall be vaccinated, before they may enter school. Whatever the law may be in your state, find out as soon as possible. Then explain to the children, as a matter of information for them. After that, it will be easier for you to enforce the law than if they are ignorant of it till you have to enforce it. A large part of good citizenship consists in the intelligent and appreciative obedience to the state's and the nation's laws.

Teach the children how properly to cough or to

sneeze. When they must cough or sneeze they should place a handkerchief over their mouths, thus preventing any germs from passing to another person. If they have not a handkerchief, they should bend over with their faces toward the floor.

h. Emergency helps. Emergencies occur at schools. A boy knocks the skin off his toes; a girl faints; someone cuts his finger; a nose bleeds; so on. It is well to anticipate all that and be prepared to take care of it. Here are some things that may be done: In case of a cut or any other breaking of the skin, the place should be washed out with clean water, a little iodine applied, or the place wrapped with court plaster or with a clean cloth; if the nose bleeds, the application of a cloth wet with cold water to the nose and also to the back of the neck usually stops it. If one faints, the sprinkling of cool water about the face and letting the fresh air come usually revives the one fainting. Here are a few things good to have at school, in case of need: "A roll of soft linen, which should be kept immaculately clean; a roll of absorbent cotton; a few fine needles; a little court plaster; small bottles of camphor, peppermint, peroxide of hydrogen, aromatic spirits of ammonia, and creolin or sulfo-naphthol."¹ Iodine should be added to the list.

i. Lighting of the schoolroom. If the schoolhouse was built before you went into the community, the chief lighting factors are beyond your control. Here are, however, a few things that are within your control: If your windows have blinds, keep those blinds open during the day. If they have shades, watch them to have them adjusted to use the light to the greatest advantage. Do this at different times of the day. If there are no shades,

¹Lincoln's *Everyday Pedagogy*, p. 13.

you take the initiative to get some. A buff color is to be preferred. That best conserves the light. A dark green shade absorbs too much light. Get two shades for each window; have them put up half-way, or a little above half-way, up the windows. Hang the two exactly alike. Have a little pulley by which to raise one toward the top. Have the lower shade run toward the top and the upper one toward the bottom. This will prevent a streak of light between the rollers. They should be about two inches apart to prevent their rubbing against each other. If it is a dark day, both should be rolled entirely upon the rollers. They may be adjusted so as to let in light above and below the shade. In addition to the above, there are available adjustable shades which may be placed at need at any height so that only one shade may serve this purpose.

Have your desks so placed that the light comes in from the left side of the children. Then their hands do not get in their light, when they are writing. If there are windows at the front of the room, cover them with some opaque substance in the way of a shade or curtain that the light may not hurt the children's eyes. The teacher must protect her own eyes, also. If there are windows at the rear of the room, that let in bright light, the teacher must make a change in the position of her desk, or cover part of the windows so that she will not have to face that bright light the day through for several months. Many teachers have ruined their eyes for lack of this caution.

In estimating the amount of light space that you need, have your older children measure and compute the amount of window surface; then have them measure and compute the floor space. This will enable them to render you intelligent help in increasing your amount of light. The window space should be from one fifth

to one fourth of the floor space. Try not to let your unobstructed light space in all your windows become less than one fifth of the floor space. If you have a room in an old school building, in which the light space is less than one fifth, take steps to get the interior walls painted a light buff color. This will help to conserve all the light that comes in. It is even better than a white wall.

j. The children's vision. In continuing the discussion of the foregoing topic, it should be said that the teacher must take every precaution to protect and conserve the vision of both herself and her children. People learn several times as much through their eyes as through all other senses. The children and the teacher should not be required to face through the day an open window or open door. They should not be required to work in such dark rooms as to strain the eyes in work. When children must read from the blackboard, they should not have to face a reflected light. Sometimes the reflection is so great that the children cannot at all read what is on the board. If boards may be installed so that the bottom comes out some four inches farther than the top, light will always be reflected upward from any part of the room, and there will be no trouble of this kind.

Use the Snellen's Card and test all your children's eyes. The children who have defective vision should be placed nearer the front or at positions in the room otherwise advantageous for them. A teacher said one day that, when she was a child, she sat on the rear seat but was never able to read anything on the board. She had her seatmate read everything to her. Another had never in all her life seen the stars till after her eyes had been tested and glasses had been fitted. After another's eyes had been fitted with glasses, the first time

he went down town it seemed that everybody's house had a new coat of paint. If you find eye defects, inform the parents of the children involved. You may get a copy of Snellen's Card from your State Superintendent of Public Instruction or the State Board of Health. It usually has on the back of it instructions as to how to use it.

k. **Defective hearing.** A boy in school had given a teacher much trouble. He appeared to be stubborn, and had been punished many times. One day the father said to the principal, "Wade thinks you people all have it in for him. I am not upholding him in his meanness; but he is a little hard of hearing. I think sometimes when he appears to be stubborn that he has not heard what the teacher says." That gave the teacher and the principal a new idea of the boy. He was placed near the front. His teacher, after that, spoke to him more directly, a little more loudly, and more kindly. This mode of treatment revealed that the boy was not stubborn at all.

If a child breathes through his mouth, that child is likely to have adenoids or other throat trouble which affects adversely his hearing and consequently his learning. Watch out for that child. One such child came from a family in which all the children learned easily, usually leading their classes. But this child was very deaf. He could not hear enough to be well instructed by the teacher. He did not get beyond the fourth grade, when he, a large boy, became discouraged and stopped school. The teachers knew nothing to advise to be done for him. Several years later there was a clinic held in his town. Operations were performed to remove from the throats of the children adenoids, discovered by a recently employed school nurse. This boy, then nineteen years old, had been out of school for

several years. He went to the clinic to "have his ears examined." The examiner discovered that he had a bad case of adenoids. An operation was performed, and his hearing immediately returned naturally and perfectly. He was now overgrown, ashamed to start back to school and take his place at the fourth grade. His education had just been prevented by a physical handicap which was removed in a few minutes, once it was discovered. Teacher, look out for these cases. Let no child fail to get an education because you knew not how to find out what was the cause of his not learning.

Examine all your children as to their hearing. This may be done with the watch test, which is administered this way: A child stands up before you. He puts over one ear some soft substance like cotton batting, while you examine the other ear. He closes his eyes. Move the watch silently toward or away from his ear, having him indicate by raising his hand when he begins or ceases to hear the watch. Use the same watch all the time, so that you may have a uniform loudness for all your children. Do not be too close to a wall, which acts to reflect the sound. Maybe you find that most of your children can hear the watch, say, thirty inches away. If it ticks more loudly they may hear it four feet away. The average will be your standard. You will find a few children to vary markedly from the average. Those are the children for whom you are looking. Suppose that one child cannot hear your watch more than twelve inches away, you would advise his parents to take him to a specialist for further examination. In the meantime, you will place this child in the room so that he can hear you easily.

1. **Stammering or stuttering.** This is a serious handicap. A stammering boy came to the author one day and said, "W-w-w-ell. I-I-er-g-g-g-g-o-in-er-qu-

qu-qu-it s-s-s-school.” He was asked, “Why are you going to quit school?” He replied, “I-I-er-c-c-c-an’t l-l-l-earn.” He was deficient in his school work, though his brothers and sisters usually did well. This child was a very bad stammerer. Nevertheless, he was a good singer; his stammering never troubled him there. He was advised to stay in school. His teacher talked to the other children about him, telling them of Blonard’s unfortunate handicap, and asking them not to laugh at him. The teacher was patient with him and encouraged him to take his time. While this did not cure him of his stuttering, he was helped a great deal by this sympathetic gentleness.

Try to get your stammerer to take his time, concentrate upon the definite succession of sounds that he is to make. Keep his successes emphasized, not his failures. Have him breathe carefully and regularly. Give exercises in singing. Have him concentrate his attention upon what he is to say; then have him say it deliberately. Encourage him not to be in a hurry about saying what is in his mind. If you can get a little time each day for a little extra drill with your stammerer, your efforts will be well repaid. Remember, *education is the changing of some one for the better*. Can you change this child for the better by helping him overcome his stammering? Some children are entirely cured by the careful treatment by teachers who understand the trouble of children’s stammering. One half of all children whose handedness is changed from left to right, or *vice versa*, are stammerers.¹

m. **Ventilation.** If you are in a school-house in which a well-working system of artificial ventilation has already been installed, you will not have to give

¹ See *A Study of Handedness*, by W. F. Jones, University of South Dakota, March, 1918, pp. 47-56.

much attention to this matter. The fan takes out the foul air and drives in the new, clean, fresh air, regardless of the operation of the windows. When such a system is in use, it is antagonistic to the well-working of the system throughout the building if windows be opened in any room. If the hot air system is the method of heating, the new hot air, as it comes into the room is supposed to be fresh, and the foul air is supposed to be removed in the regular movement of the air. If your schoolroom is equipped with a jacketed stove, and if there is arranged an in-take of fresh air from the outside, and an out-take for foul air, ventilation will largely take care of itself, when the stove within the jacket is kept hot. When it is not hot, ventilation must be provided by windows. If window ventilation must be provided, two windows must be used. *Fresh air cannot come into a room, unless foul air passes out.* When a room is full of air, at the same pressure as prevails outside, no more fresh air can come in, unless there is an exit for air already in the room. If there is a stove, which is not of the jacketed type, you must use frequently window or door ventilation. In using window ventilation, care must be taken that the wind does not blow directly on some of the children. This can be avoided, if a short piece of ten-inch plank be set in the window, leaning back from the window, thus deflecting the incoming air upward, above the children's heads. The windows should not be thrown open for an "airing" in cold weather, unless the children are out of the room, or unless they are moving about.

The following amounts of air will probably be vitiated (not used up) by children, as here indicated:

Per child in the primary grades, 2,000 cubic feet per hour;

Per child in the grammar grades, 2,500 cubic feet per hour;

Per child in the high school, 3,000 cubic feet per hour.

Your chief problem as a teacher is to try to coöperate with the total purposes of the school, and in this matter to see that your children get a proper and reasonable amount of fresh, pure air. If a jacketed stove is installed in your school, or if any other system is installed, and if you have any influence, have the in-take bring its air from the outside, where there is a pure source. Some schools bring the air right up from immediately below the floor, where the air is all the time very foul.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. What is meant by "hygienizing the school"? To what extent is it necessary in your school? What difficulties do you see? How can they be overcome? Is it worth while?
2. What factors of school management should be hygienized?
3. Write out the best plan that you know or can find out, as to how you may clean the schoolroom. Can the furniture be kept from damage by your cleaning? How?
4. What difficulties do you see in bringing about cleanliness in the habits of your pupils? How may they be overcome?
5. To what extent does your water supply measure up to real health requirements? If not satisfactory, what can be done to meet such requirements?
6. Read Wilkinson's *Rural School Management*, pp. 106-111, and write out a method by which you may have installed in your school a hot-lunch plan. Also read Chapter XIV in Reference 1 above.
7. Make a list of reasons why a teacher should spend the recess periods on the grounds, supervising the play of her pupils. To what extent are your teacher friends measuring up to their opportunities in this respect? Are you going to throw your opportunity away here, or will you try to change your pupils for the better in their recreations, too?
8. How can you get a copy of Bancroft's "Games for the Playground, Home and School" for your schoolroom?
9. How will you appeal to your children to get them to *want* correct posture in sitting, standing, walking?
10. What are the laws in your State in the matter of contagious diseases? Which diseases in children's homes require that you exclude children in those homes from school, while another member of the family is sick? What are the requirements about vaccination?
11. What emergency helps are needed at the school? Where can you get them? Ask your physician, or your druggist.
12. What must you do to your schoolroom to get it lighted properly? Is there something that is absolutely beyond your power to remedy? What is it? Are you sure? Why?

13. What sort and color of shades do you need? Will the school board purchase them for you? If not, can you raise some money through your school improvement society, or other organization, with which to get them? From what furniture dealer would you get them?
14. Explain how you may ascertain the defects in children's vision. What will you do for those found to have visual defects? Give the tests, and report to your superintendent how many children you find with defects of vision.
15. How may you ascertain which of your children have defects of hearing? Examine the hearing of six of your friends, to see whether you really understand the method. What two things can you do for school children found to be defective in hearing?
16. How can you help stammering children to overcome their handicap?
17. To what extent must you use, in your school, window ventilation? How many cubic feet of air space in your room? How many children sit in your room? That is how many cubic feet per pupil? Re-read topic m, and compute how many minutes that amount of air will last your children and you, if no other air comes in.
18. What is the area in square feet of the opening through which the fresh air comes into your room? Divide the number representing this area into the number representing the cubic feet of air in the room. This would give you the number of linear feet of air that must pass through the opening to fill your room with new air, the old air constantly passing out.
19. Order from your school-furniture dealer an anemometer, which is an instrument about the size of an alarm clock, with which you measure the number of linear feet of air passing through an opening. The air operates a little fan very delicately balanced, and a hand goes around, indicating the number of linear feet of air passing through in a given time.
20. From 16, 17 and 18 above, how many linear feet must pass through the opening of the size in your room, to fill it? To furnish your children with the required number of cubic feet per hour, how many linear feet must pass through per hour? How many per minute? Hold the anemometer in the opening and see whether that number passes through.

CHAPTER XIX

HYGIENIZING THE SCHOOL—2

THE discussion of this problem will continue in this chapter. Other similar topics will be presented in similar manner. Even then, the whole problem will be only lightly touched. That is the reason for "Class Problem" 1 at close of this chapter.

n. **Heating.** If you are in a good school system, having good buildings, and a good janitorial service, there is little for you to do in this matter. If not, seek to bring such conditions to pass. We shall not explain all the methods of heating—only those to which you may have to give personal attention. In case of steam heat, or hot water heat, or a fan-driven hot air system, or even a gravity central system, there is little for you to do except to turn the heat off when there is more than you need, or to turn it on again when you need it. As such systems are usually also accompanied by a good ventilating system, you will not throw away your supply of heat by opening the windows, while the warm air is coming into the room. If you must open the windows, shut off the heat. Otherwise, you turn it out of the building and the other rooms suffer.

In case you have a jacketed stove, keep the door of the jacket closed all the time when the fire is not being made or replenished. This makes for easy circulation of the warm air and the fresh air. If the door stands open, or if you open windows, the circulation is all broken up. With the door of the jacket closed, and a

good fire within, no outside door or window being open, the entire room will be perfectly comfortable. A handkerchief held at the bottom of the exhaust pipe will show how rapidly the vitiated air is passing out. The hole at the top into which the exhaust pipe goes must be air-tight about the pipe to make all the air pass through the exhaust pipe in going out.

In case you must use a stove which has no jacket about it, the heat will not be evenly distributed over the room. It is going to be necessary for you, in cold times, to permit some of the children to come up to the stove and warm their feet. That is not well, but you cannot help it. When it is necessary, permit it. In this case, too, you will have to use window ventilation once in a while. You will not need to do so at the very first, while the room is getting warm. Usually such a room does not suffer from insufficient heat but rather from too much heat to those who must sit near the stove.

Suspend a thermometer from the center of the ceiling (but not over a stove), to hang about five or six feet from the floor. Try to keep your temperature about 65 to 68 degrees.

o. Protecting your schoolhouse from fire. You do not want to bear the responsibility for the loss of your schoolhouse by fire. Use precautions to prevent it. Do not let coals of fire fall in behind the stove jacket and be left there. Prevent the putting of waste paper behind the jacket. Do not let the janitor accumulate waste papers in the basement so that a match struck and thrown there would have your building afire in a little while. Ashes must not be put into wooden barrels in the building. Oils and raffia should not be left in the open, where matches might be thrown. The stove doors should be closed. In afternoons do not leave fire in your stoves. Invite some men of careful judgment to

come and look over the schoolhouse and advise you what other precautions you might take to make it extremely unlikely that fires may break out.

The building should be kept locked and all windows fastened down, when school is not in session. The building belongs to the children and to their parents. You are in a large way its custodian. See that it is taken care of as well as possible.

p. Variant children. School hygiene necessitates that you shall do the right thing by those children who vary from the normal in matters of health and mentality. You have been advised how to proceed in the case of three classes of variant children: those with visual defects, those with auditory defects, and stammerers. There are some children who are anemic and pale. Try to get those examined by a physician. In the author's own school once such a child appeared on the grounds as a drooping chicken, running slowly behind the crowd. When examined, he was found to have a bad case of hookworm disease. Treatment was given, and in a few weeks the color returned to his cheeks. Instead of his going to sleep each day on his desk, he was very much alive. At recess, he was no longer the drooping chicken. At any rate, you may advise the parents to have children of such appearance examined by a physician. You can also provide as much play and outdoor exercise as possible. You will not be as strict in your school requirements for such children as for the healthy ones.

Then there is the highly nervous child. Be patient; he cannot help being nervous. Avoid scolding him. Help him or her to take things quietly and just as they come. Exercise, recreation, freedom from worry will help retard nervous attacks. Patient study of the individual case is an opportunity to do the right thing.

Lighter work sometimes helps. The author found a child, a very brilliant child, who had the year before been the leading pupil in one of the seventh grades. In addition to that, outside school hours the father had her study German, Hebrew and music. Her father's ambitions for her and her own brilliance had led her to do more than her physical constitution could stand. The result was chorea. Another result was that she was unable to be in school at all the following year. Even brilliant pupils have their physical limitations.

The foregoing is not to advise you against letting supernormal children do extra work. If a child varies considerably above the average, he should do much more work. He may take an extra subject, or he may take one subject in two grades, or he may be permitted to "skip" a grade or half-grade, or he may be provided with a course of good reading to fill his time, when he shall have done his lessons. Children should not be "skipped" except on the basis of standard tests. This will be discussed in the chapter on "Measuring the School."

If a child is subnormal, you are not to hold him up before the other children as "dull." He cannot help the fact that nature has not given him the mental strength of some of his fellows. Be patient with him, too. He will not be helped by being scolded for his dullness. If he be behind in one subject, he might take that subject in the grade below. At the end of the year, if he cannot be promoted in all his subjects, promote him in what he does pass. If he passed in only one subject, promote him in that.

If you find any of your children who are variant from the average normal children of your classroom in the matters of health or mentality, study their cases with care. Speak to your superintendent about it.

Speak to a physician about it. You want to do the right thing. If you do not know right off what to do, do not be satisfied till you find out.

q. **Health inspection.** In some states there is made a provision for the health examination of children and the making of records of the findings. In well administered systems, nurses or physicians or other health officials make such examinations. In other systems, the teacher makes the examinations. Cards are provided on which the information can be recorded. The teachers are supposed to take some time off from the regular program and make these records, having them ready for inspection at any time.

Whatever the requirement in your county or city or state, this is to advise you to coöperate with the authorities in charge of such examination, that you may do the whole thing required of you in this matter. After looking over the cards, if you see some items which you do not understand, you may write your superintendent, asking him about it. Do not defer anything "till a more convenient season." If your superintendent sends you a report to fill out between the 6th and the 10th of the month, fill it out on the 6th. Never wait till the last day. Get such things done at once. You want to be an efficient teacher, not one that will be behind in everything that is to be reported.

r. **The hygiene of instruction.** A book might be written on this, but the following are called to the attention as being worth while for the teacher to try to put into effect from the first, for the purpose of *hygienizing* her instruction:

- 1) Provision for some humor in the school room.
- 2) Provision for mental and physical recreation.
- 3) Not too much home work; none in the primary

grades; not over one to two hours for grades 4 to 8; about three hours for high school pupils.

4) Teaching children how to study economically and efficiently.

5) Making careful assignments and holding children responsible for the assignments.

6) Providing for expression in all your subjects, as well as for impression.

7) Avoidance of the nervous scare about examinations.

8) Not requiring more work than children can do well, but requiring what they *can* do well.

9) Careful making of a daily program.

10) Careful routinizing of minor details of the school work.

11) Cultivating a pleasant, gentle, sympathetic, non-rasping voice.

12) The avoidance of *nagging*.

13) Attention to individual needs.

14) A program not over-crowded and not making premature demands upon them.

Many others might be named. In other words, instruction is made hygienic, if it be given with a high regard for, and consideration of, the children's physical organisms, and with a view to helping them keep their bodies and nervous systems in the best possible condition for the work of the school from day to day. Lack of space forbids here a discussion of these and other items.

s. **Instruction in hygiene.** It is usually required in courses of study that hygiene shall have a place on the daily program as a subject of instruction, especially in certain grades. There is also probably already selected for you a text-book in hygiene which you are to use as the basis for your instruction. Then you will follow

that carefully. If you teach only text-book hygiene, however, you may not succeed in changing the lives of your children very much for the better. You must endeavor to build up in the minds of those children certain ideals of health upon the basis of which they will *want* to do those things that will make them physically efficient. A teacher succeeded in so impressing her children with the ideals of health that they began immediately to put the teachings into effect. The teacher found out, in visiting the parents, that the children had been coming home each day and putting their hygiene teachings into immediate effect. They had begun washing their teeth, sleeping with windows open, washing their hands before each meal, chewing their food carefully, taking their baths regularly, and doing many other things. Work to get built up in the minds of the children the ideals of health and to have them practice the habits of hygiene immediately. There is no "cold storage" hygiene to be learned now and used ten years from now. Somehow, it will not keep in cold storage. Hygiene can be learned only through use. Put the children to using it at school, and advise them to use it right away at home. They will do so, if you make the subject *attractive*. Do you *live* what you teach in hygiene? If not, begin now. The true, inspirational teacher *is* what she teaches. Labor to become what you teach.

t. **Toilets.** It is an administrative problem as to what kind of toilet you have at your school. So arguments will not be presented for each kind of toilet. With given situations, this is to advise you what the teacher can do in this respect to hygienize the school and keep it so.

In a well-administered system of schools, this problem has already been so nearly solved that it is well-

nigh self-regulating. Proper, clean, sanitary closets are in use. The janitor or other proper person looks after them each day and there is no task for the teacher here. The suggestions here given will apply then only to those small schools in which the system has not taken care of the situation, and there is left a task for the teacher.

In most small schools, the teacher or teachers are women. It is easy enough to inspect the girls' toilet. It is not so easy to have the boys' properly inspected. The following two ways have been used in small communities:

1) In one type of community, there is a community organization called the school improvement association, or school league, or civic league. In their organization there is provided a committee of men who will regularly inspect the boys' toilets. They will come to school and meet with the boys, and talk with them about the proper way to keep their toilets.

2) One teacher took the matter into her own hands. She called the boys together and said to them that there was a matter that needed attention and that she must attend to it. She reminded them that it was somewhat embarrassing for a lady to inspect the boys' toilets. She asked them whether it was in condition to be inspected by a lady, whether there was any writing on the walls that was improper. Then, she asked them whether, if there were anything there that ought not to be, they would not be willing to remove it before the next day. This they agreed to do; they furthermore agreed to try to keep it so that it might be inspected at any time. The next day this lady teacher took the mother of one of the boys and inspected the boys' toilet. A young, *beginning lady teacher* should not do this, unless accompanied by another lady, both in the

talk and the inspection, for it would become a matter of gossip in the community. Only an experienced teacher can manage this altogether by herself, unless the boys are small.

In small schools, a committee of men ought regularly to relieve a lady teacher of such inspection. The teacher can bring that about by speaking to the ladies of the community about it.

All toilets should be screened against flies. If they are not, the teacher should bring it about, by talking to the ladies about it, especially in the school leagues. Lime should also be used. If the toilets are not self-cleaning, through the proper system, and must be cleaned occasionally, the cleanings must be buried. Probably the worst feature of the rural school is the very unsanitary condition of the boys' toilets, together with the vulgar writing that is usually found on the walls. Get the grown people to help you remedy the situation here.

u. **Smoking.** You can make rules that children should not smoke on the school grounds, but you are unable to prohibit their smoking at home if the parents choose to permit it. The cigarette habit is very de-educative in its effects upon young boys. Many studies have been made to show how much cigarette smokers are behind students who do not smoke. In any large school it is easy to pick out those who smoke somewhere, even if not at school, and compare their grades in the office with those of the boys who do not smoke. The results are at once apparent. Here are some things that you can do to restrain the boys in their smoking:

- 1) Prohibit it on the school grounds.

- 2) Appeal to them not to smoke in boyhood, showing them the results upon other boys in their school work; appeal to them to defer trying it till they shall

become twenty-one years of age. Then, as their education will be well out of the way, if they will smoke, it will not hurt them so much.

3) Organize an athletic association. Speak to the boys about the fact that smokers are often nervous and cannot play ball as efficiently as non-smokers. In order to develop good players the boys all agree to leave off smoking anywhere, home or elsewhere, while they belong to the association. This is the most effective method which the author has ever tried. (You can also eliminate profanity on the playground the same way.)

4) Hold up the ideal of a body with nerves not harmed by the use of tobacco in any way, by chewing, smoking or dipping.

There are community factors that must be considered even here. In one state in which education was not compulsory a few years ago a young lady took charge of a one-teacher school. She found to her dismay that all the girls dipped snuff and the boys chewed tobacco. She told them that she could not have that. They informed her that they did not want to come to school anyway, and, if they could not use their snuff and their tobacco, they would not come. She sent for the superintendent. When he came, they found that all the parents used snuff and tobacco and did not object to their children's using them also. The parents did not care particularly for the school and were willing for their children to quit school. So, the teacher and the superintendent decided that, rather than lose all chance of changing the people of that community for the better, the teacher for the present would say nothing further about prohibiting the use of snuff and tobacco; and the children went on using it. The teacher in a quiet way taught the principles and ideals of hygiene. Before

the session closed, all the children had, at least temporarily, laid aside these filthy habits at school.

v. **Flies and mosquitoes.** These things do as much damage at school, if admitted on terms of intimacy and equality, as at home. Let the breeding places be destroyed. Let the children take a project in hygiene, to cover the water of every hole nearby with a coat of oil, as taught them in their book of hygiene; to overturn all tin cans, having water in them, and punch a hole in the bottom; to apply the method of destroying the breeding places of flies, as set forth in their health bulletin, procured by writing to the State Board of Health, at the State Capitol. If flies or mosquitoes are troublesome at school, take steps through your school improvement organization to get some screens for both windows and doors.

w. **Wet shoes, wet clothing, cold feet.** Children should be advised to wear rubber shoes and to use rubber coats or umbrellas. They will not all do so, for many reasons. Permit children, coming to school in wet shoes or wet clothing, to go to the radiator, or register, or stove, so as to dry off quickly. If on a very cold morning their feet are cold, permit them to come up to the register, radiator, or stove, and warm as quickly as possible, so as to be able to get down to work without the risk of illness.

x. **Janitorial service.** In large systems, a very expert service by janitors is required. In smaller schools, it is not possible to get usually a highly expert janitor, and he must be instructed about many things, involving hygiene and sanitation. In many rural schools, either the teacher acts as janitor, or some of the larger boys do. In the case of the smaller town schools, the principal must know the requirements of good janitorial service and instruct the janitor accord-

ingly. In the case of the rural school, where no janitorial service is furnished, the teacher, by making proper presentation of the matter, is able to call for volunteers who will take the work week about, or day about, and do it as she tells them to do it. Such arrangements often get better service than is found in the average small town, where a poor janitor, poorly paid, becomes the limit. In a given rural school the teacher was able to have several committees of girls, who took the sweeping and cleaning day about, and no one was burdened. Similar committees of the boys made the fire, and brought the fuel and water. The *beginning teacher* should enter upon her task, resolved to tackle anything that has to be done. Nobody but a coward and a weakling throws down the job and runs home to "Mamma." Having contracted to teach for the session, stick to it. "Swear to your own hurt and change not."

y. **The art of health.** Health is not something apart. It is not something away off. It is a condition and a process to be lived. Try to make the school live and practice its teachings of health. Expression, experience in health, and not mere impression-theory, is the desideratum. You may be sure to get your health teaching over to your pupils, when you have them *living* it, as you go along. Labor to make health an art, and a *fine art* at that—something worth while, not merely for what may come from it, but also as worth while in itself.

z. **The teacher's health.** A given person, if he is healthy, is a better teacher than if he is unhealthy. The teacher often injures her own eyes by not caring for them, even while teaching others visual hygiene. Many teachers become victims of disease because of not managing the chalk dust properly, by not giving close attention to her hands in making calls and by not washing them immediately before eating fruit or other things.

Others stay indoors at recess, correcting papers, instead of supervising the children's games, and benefiting from recreation themselves. If the *art of health* is to be real in your school, you yourself *live* what you teach in hygiene. Someone has said that people "recommend not what they like, but what they like others to like." If you would be sincere, practice the health doctrine which you preach to the children. You need to do it for your own sake, as well as for your profession.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. As soon as possible, read one of the references, numbered 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, or 12, above, the whole book.
2. What will be your method of keeping your schoolroom at uniform temperature?
3. In what ways can you protect your schoolhouse from fire?
4. Write down, in vertical column, the names of all the *variant* children whom you know. Write by each name just how you will minister to this child's disability in order to *change him for the better*.
5. Enlarge the list of provisions for hygienizing instruction given in topic *r*. How will each make instruction more hygienic?
6. In the school which you know is there anything which you as teacher could do to make the toilets more sanitary?
7. In what ways may you break up, or at least diminish, smoking among your school boys?
8. Should the doors and windows of your schoolhouse be screened? Why?
9. What is the teacher's duty with regard to janitorial service?
10. Write down (1) all the things you *do* to promote your own health; (2) all the other things you *could do* to promote your health. When will you begin on the latter?

CHAPTER XX

DISCIPLINING THE SCHOOL—1

1. **The meaning and importance of discipline.** This word is always associated with the work of a teacher. The school board, when about to decide upon a teacher, inquires very carefully as to whether the teacher is, or is likely to become, a good “disciplinarian.” Visitors to a school will usually judge more by the “discipline” of the school than by anything else. Even the superintendent makes large use of his judgment of the teacher’s “disciplinary” powers, when forming his estimate of her efficiency. Sometimes it is said that a teacher fails as a teacher for lack of “discipline.” Many people pronounce this word on the second syllable, implying that the teacher who has this power can make the children “scip” without difficulty. In common parlance, the word discipline ordinarily implies *control*. If the teacher is a good disciplinarian, he or she has no difficulty in controlling the school children. It does not necessarily imply that the teacher is a bad punisher of the children. It does imply that the teacher has those traits of character and of preparation that make for easy government and control of the children for the purpose of the school.

Discipline is not of necessity stillness and quietness. It is rather activity, without disturbance, in doing the work of the school. Sometimes the *beginning teacher* fails in discipline, not realizing the necessity of starting out at first with a good plan of discipline, executed

with promptness and vigor. There is no need to fail here, if teachers will "begin as they can hold out, and hold out as they begin." The teacher should realize that the state, the community, and the school board expect her to *control* the school. They have the right to expect that the teacher shall study how, and learn how, to maintain acceptable discipline in his or her schoolroom.

2. The purposes of school discipline. Discipline is not at first an end in itself. It is maintained primarily as a means of accomplishing certain other purposes. Some of these purposes are as follows:

a. To maintain a condition in the schoolroom which will make it possible for every child to perform his work in freedom from unnecessary interruption and disturbance is essential to profitable employment in the schoolroom. It is to preserve order for doing work. *It is to prevent what disturbs the work of the school.* Parents have paid their taxes for an educational opportunity in that schoolroom. They have the right to demand that their children have quiet and undisturbed opportunity for study and classwork. Discipline, then, is opportunity for work. It is wrong that any children shall have their time wasted, where it should be best conserved. It is, then, the teacher's duty to bring about and maintain optimal conditions for mental activity in the schoolroom.

b. Self-control on the part of the children of a sort approved by society is a big part of the purpose of education. The school must do its part to help build up this trait of character. The best sort of discipline will gradually bring the children to appreciate, to participate in, to support, their own government, to the end that, when they shall take their places in society,

they will be truly self-governing, regarding highly the rights and efforts of other people.

If these two purposes—to prevent what disturbs schoolwork, and to produce a dependable self-control on the part of the boys and girls—be worth while, every teacher then must undertake the task of school discipline seriously and intelligently.

3. Obstacles to discipline. It is well for the *beginning teacher* to recognize at the outset just what these are, and to undertake to overcome them. Some of them are as follows:

a. Bad school hygiene. The children are much more easily controlled and directed in a situation in which all the environmental physical factors are hygienic than in one in which this is not true. The *beginning teacher* will, therefore, if earnest, honest and sincere in her professional attitudes, quickly overcome this obstacle by doing what is set forth as worth while in the preceding chapters on “Hygienizing the School.” If a room is dirty, children’s thoughts are on a lower plane and they turn to mischief more easily. Cut and scarred furniture is an invitation to further cut and scar it. Beauty of surroundings aids in inducing beauty of thoughts and of behavior.

b. Unfavorable physical condition of the pupils. Study your pupil. If he is cross and hard to manage some days, try to ascertain whether he is sick, hungry, or abnormal in some other way. Even the teacher finds it harder to maintain an even temper when his or her physical condition is not good. The food given children in some homes is of such character and preparation as to induce a sour disposition, at least for a short while. A sickly, nervous child needs sympathy, courtesy, advice, more than repression. On a given day, when it seems that all the children are “bad,” the be-

ginning teacher is advised that he or she is that day seeing "through a glass darkly." The teacher is below par physically and does not know it. Whenever it seems that all the children are "bad," the teacher should recognize that the cause is in himself or herself and say, "O well, I am not in the best physical condition today; so I will not do foolish things to the pupils, by scolding them for everything they do." Overcome this obstacle, by learning just what the cause is and then by proceeding patiently.

c. **Original nature of the pupils.** The "original nature" is the raw material, the real sum and substance with which you work. Some children have inherited a better "original nature" than others and are consequently easier to work with. Those who have received from their parents and other ancestors an unfortunate heredity present a harder problem of discipline. Yet there are teachers whose chief pride is to take such children and lead them upward into worth while lives. They study the characteristics of such children, show themselves friendly to them, put their better side to work, thwarting the opportunity for the evil side of their natures to work. In thinking of this, remember that original nature includes both the good nature and the bad nature that one receives from his ancestry. It is his capital at the start of life. He is not responsible for it, whether it be predominantly good or predominantly bad. Overcome the evil side of nature by putting the good side to work and letting it grow strong through exercise, and let the bad side grow weaker through lack of exercise. "Exercise strengthens; disuse weakens."

d. **Uninteresting work.** When children become interested in their work they give very little trouble in discipline. If the teacher be a master of the work

and teach in a way to catch the children's interest and enthusiasm, this obstacle is easily overcome. Enthusiasm is as contagious as the measles; but it is hard to be enthusiastic about things of which one is not a master. Master your subject-matter and then teach it, believing in it. The children will come to believe in it and discipline is made much easier.

e. **Bad home training.** You are not responsible for the training that your children have had at home, whether it be good or bad. They, too, are not responsible. A child who has all his life heard his mother and father quarreling, scolding and cursing each other, and abusing the children, will be much harder to control in school than one who has not been a witness of such living. Again, those children whose parents have obeyed them at every beck and call, whose whims have been ministered to by the parents, regardless of the badness and the silliness of such ministry, are even harder to bring to recognize decent discipline. President McConnell is fond of telling of the mountaineer who was asked if he believed in corporal punishment. "Believe in it?" said the mountaineer, "I never struck one of my children in my life except in self-defense." Children must learn sometime to submit to the demands of a reasonable life in the society of a democracy. If they do not learn in the home, if they do not learn in the school, sooner or later they must learn at the hard hand of the law of the state. The principal of a school had a boy in school, hard to manage, a breaker of every rule in the school. It had been necessary to punish this boy several times, apparently without effect. The principal called at the child's home. He was going to report the boy's ill behavior to the father. Soon the father came in. As he entered the doorway, the boy came along. The father stormed out at the boy

and knocked him down for some trifling offense. The principal took it all in in a moment. He saw another side of the child's life. He never told the father what he had called for. From that time on he showed a friendly, comradely interest in the boy, and soon won him over; the boy's misbehavior ceased.

This is an obstacle; but the more you can know about the child involved; the better you understand child nature; the more you get into the child's life; the sooner you win his love and respect;—the more easily will you come to discipline that child without trouble. Resolve in your mind that, if you cannot control him with the better means, you will have to employ others. YOU are the master of the school (even though you keep that a secret), not the child, and you cannot afford to let a child from a bad home environment ruin the order and discipline of your school.

f. Too many rules. Near the beginning of the school, the first day, say to the children, "We want to have only a few good rules by which we shall be governed. I want to have you children help me make them. What do you think would be proper rules for us to live by, so that we may be proud of our deportment when our parents call, or when our visitors call, and so that we can do our work properly? Your fathers and mothers have paid the taxes necessary to maintain this school. They are entitled to good government in our school." Put the emphasis on what the children *will do* rather than on what they *will not do*. "What are some of the things that we can do to make it possible for everybody to work without being disturbed?" Thus you will get a few useful rules, which, coming from the children themselves, will be more easily enforced. If you try to catalogue all the things which a child should *not do*, it will become a

searching contest with them to find all the possible mischievous things to do which are not prohibited. They will be constantly taking chances of violating a rule that is not made, or they will try to violate one that is made, and yet not be found out. A few *positive* rules, under which such prohibitions may come as make possible the realization of the positive rule, are in place. For example, if you may lead your children to make this rule, "We will work quietly," an interpretation, through discussion of it with the children, will involve "no talking," "walking on tiptoe," and so on, thus recognizing all the children's right to work without being disturbed.

g. The personal element. This will be hard for you to understand at first. There will be some children for whom you will easily form a very deep attachment, and for others an adverse prejudice. It will be harder for you to see wrong done by the former children and easier for you to see it in the latter. You will need to watch your prejudices for or against certain children. It is much more difficult than a young person supposes for one to be absolutely "impartial." Children soon discover whether the teacher has some pets. Ordinarily a teacher's "pets" come from the wealthier families, in which the aspect of cultural congeniality is more striking. The teacher should be friends with and to all the children, but "chummy" with none. The teacher should be equally approachable by all. Unless you can recognize the hidden force that drives you on to "chumminess" and "favoritism" with some children in advance, you may be in the slough of embarrassment soon. Two children will commit the same offense. You will find it easier to punish one than the other, though they may be equally guilty. The determining factor in your attitude toward each of those children is the personal

element involved. It will be easier for you to overcome obstacles that are outside yourself than those within yourself. While you are studying the children, study yourself. Try not to let the personal feeling between you and a given child influence you from doing the right thing. If a boy has been insolent and impertinent, do not retain a perpetual grudge against him. If another child has brought you several bouquets of beautiful flowers, do not form the opinion that that child is incapable of violating the rules of the school. This obstacle is not insurmountable for you, but it is difficult.

h. Misunderstandings. There are misunderstandings that arise hard to deal with. The teacher misunderstands the motives of a child who acts insolently, even though his home training has never been such as to induce good manners at home. The child misunderstands his teacher, believing that she "has it in for him." Children who are highly sensitive become perfectly miserable, believing that all the other children are talking and thinking and laughing about them. They are hard to deal with. The more you live with and work with and play with the children, the more easily such misunderstandings are removed. Getting the minds on something else more worth while often enables the misunderstanding to pass harmlessly. A misunderstanding is made more incurable by magnifying it.

i. Poor school organization. You went a long way toward overcoming this obstacle when you made a good start the first day of school, adopted a carefully made program, and systematized your minor routine matters of school management. A good start through good organization is more than half the battle. Even from the standpoint of discipline, a careful organization is needed. Unless you start off that way, it is difficult to effect it afterwards.

j. Advertising failure and misdeeds. Some teachers, when one child has committed a certain offense, seem to feel that it is necessary to announce it to the school. Maybe a child has missed something and accuses another of stealing it. The teacher gets up and talks about it before the whole room. A little trouble occurs on the way home from school and the teacher hears about it. Though it concerned only two children, the teacher takes occasion to make a long speech on misbehavior on the road home from school. There are very few times when it is necessary to talk about these things publicly. Here is the principle of overcoming this obstacle: *Try to keep the children's minds on the positive, proper and right things of school life. Settle minor difficulties privately, and without advertising them.* It is not necessary for you to go to your boarding place and talk about those things. In fact, when you leave the schoolhouse in the afternoon, leave all school troubles or gossip there. If your friends ever find out any of your troubles, which you can settle yourself, let them find out from some other source—not from you. At your boarding place, talk only of the pleasant things that occurred at school. Advertise the good things of school life and of school children. There are more of the good and the pleasant in school life than of the bad and the unpleasant, if your eyes be not blinded to their presence.

k. The teacher. The teacher is sometimes the greatest obstacle to good discipline. There are four ways in which a teacher may be a great obstacle to discipline. Look them over and see if you cannot overcome them at once:

1) *Tactlessness.* The teacher may use no tact; in fact, she may not know what tact is. The child's mother comes to school to inquire why Mary got so low a mark

in arithmetic. Instead of asking the mother to have a seat, and in a courteous and gentle way explaining that Mary had been absent six times in the month, and, even if Mary had studied as she ought, it would have been hard for her on this account to make 100 on her test, she says, in a frantic, excited and angry way, "I am grading these children, and I don't want any of *your* lip in it." With that she slams the door in the mother's face. Another teacher, instead of being out on the playgrounds at recess, giving herself to all the children in supervising their games, is in the schoolhouse with the largest boy in school. Soon the children and their parents are gossiping about the "courting" teacher. A child was slow in her school progress. The teacher said to her, angrily, one day, "You are as dull as Margaret Blank." Margaret was in an upper grade, but her parents soon heard of it and were very angry. A teacher of an eighth grade became angry with a boy who was eighteen years old and slapped him on the jaw right in the classroom. The boy picked up his hat and left the room. Another teacher, when dared by a large boy in school to teach the whole afternoon with a handkerchief in her mouth, actually did go through the afternoon with her handkerchief packed back in her mouth. She was immediately dismissed for such conduct. There are a few *beginning teachers* who seem incapable of avoiding such tactless performances. The sooner they absolutely fail and get out of the teaching vocation, the better for all concerned. But this obstacle may be overcome (1) by being uniformly courteous to all, regardless of how you feel; (2) by trying to learn the right thing to do and by doing it; (3) by eliminating all conduct which is unworthy of an adult lady or gentleman.

2) *Fear of incurring the dislike of parents.* If

these parents be wealthy and influential, some teachers will let their children commit much more mischief than those of the humbler homes. It is better that a teacher throw up the job, resign and get out, than engage in such impartiality and injustice as that. If you have the right professional spirit, you are going to try to find out what the right thing is; then you are going to do that thing, regardless of the consequences. That does not mean that you will throw away tact, either. "Be sure you are right; then go ahead." You do not have to act hastily. Go slowly enough to determine for certain what is right. Then, do it. A teacher who requires certain children to deport themselves properly and does not require it of other children, because of the fear of incurring the dislike of the parents of the latter, is not doing right.

3) *Not knowing what to do.* A teacher was in charge of a fifth grade room. The children were noisy, jumping from seat to seat, laughing, punching each other, making faces, throwing things at each other—a regular whirl of disorder. The teacher had stopped in the midst of her class and was standing there before her class, waiting for them to get quiet. Poor teacher, she did not know what in the world to do. Not one out of a hundred who reads this book will be so deficient. If you are, you must learn right away or you cannot go on with your school. Get the advice of more experienced teachers, your principal, your supervisor, your superintendent. Follow the directions of this and other books.

4) *"Nagging", scolding, worrying, fussing.* Most people who "nag" do not know it and cannot be convinced of it. The only way to avoid it is to learn what it is and start in from the first, deliberately avoiding it. Here are some examples of nagging:

a) John does not remember how to find the principal, when the interest, time and rate are given. The teacher says, "Don't you remember that I explained that to the class last week? Can't you remember anything? What's the use of explaining anything to a blockhead like you?"

b) A teacher was in charge of a class of fourth-year high school Latin. A boy, who had been doing better than the average pupil in the class, was doing poorly one day. The teacher stormed out at him, "If you cannot do any better than that, I think we had better put you back into the seventh grade!" Such teachers actually do get to the point at which they "pick on" certain pupils, making their lives a burden and sometimes driving the children in question from school. It is all right to rebuke, under the proper circumstances and for the proper offenses. It is never properly allowable for any teacher to "nag" and "scold" and "fuss" at any pupil, regardless of the offense or the circumstances. Never begin it lest too late you find it impossible to overcome it.

4. **Causes of poor discipline.** Some of the more striking causes of poor discipline will be here enumerated and briefly discussed that you may recognize them and prepare to remove them or avoid them.

a. **Harsh treatment.** This is a cause not likely to appear in a beginning teacher's career. In the old-time school children were frequently treated very harshly. In the modern school children are seldom treated harshly. We have come upon a more humanitarian age. You will not be tempted to beat the blood out of a child, or twist his fingers till he squalls, or throw a pencil at him and knock out one of his eyes, or knock him down and step on him, or mash his mouth, or tie him down in an uncomfortable position so that he suffers with-

out being able to help himself. The beginning teacher is likely, instead of being harsh to children, to be too gentle; to defer punishing, rather than to punish too much. But, if a teacher does punish harshly, it leads in the end to bad discipline.

b. Indulgence. It is a rule that the children must remain on the playground at recess. Some children come and ask the teacher to let them go down to the corner store. The teacher says, "I cannot. That is against the rules." The children say, "We know that, but let us go just this once." After being begged thus, the teacher says, "Well, go on, but don't be gone long."

It is against the rules for the children to "visit" each other at their desks in the room. One asks permission to do so. After begging to be allowed to do it once, she is permitted to go. It soon gets to the point that all are visiting even without permission and the noise makes good teaching impossible. If a rule is necessary, enforce it. Indulgence just once is sowing the wind, later to reap the whirlwind.

c. Weakness and hesitation. "He who hesitates is lost." Many teachers fail right here. In a certain schoolroom, the children had, under the teacher's guidance, made a few very good rules for their government in the room. One was as follows: "In order not to disturb each other in our studying, we will not talk to each other in school time." The children had observed it faithfully for two weeks. One day the teacher looked back and saw two boys talking. She knew that it would not do to "indulge" them even once. She said (to *them*, not to the room), "What is our rule about disturbing each other?" One of the boys said, "We will not disturb each other by talking to each other." Her teaching went on. Five minutes later she saw these same two boys talking again. She walked quickly to

their desk. She looked them squarely in the eyes. They saw firmness and force there. She said in a tone which they could not mistake, "Are YOU going to stop that talking, or aren't you going to stop? Give me your answer NOW." She did not show anger. She had her hand on their shoulders. She did show an irresistible firmness. At once they said, "We'll stop." They did, and that was the last trouble of that kind. A child soon learns how far you will let him go. The thing to do is to decide in advance how far it is right for them to go and then not budge a particle, unless an evident case of injustice might occur. For an example of the latter, even if it is against the rule to talk to each other, a child should not be punished for speaking to another if the latter were about to drop his watch on the floor, where it would be broken. If you are weak, you cannot teach. You must be confident of your strength.

d. Lack of sympathy. This word, "sympathy", means *suffering with* another. It is putting oneself in the place of another, and seeing things from his standpoint. Can you put yourself in the place of an eleven-year-old boy and see the situation from his standpoint and analyze the motives that led him to commit the misdeed? A fine compliment was paid the principal of a school one day, when one of his pupils said of him, "He knows how it is, 'cause he has been a boy." A teacher one day, when talking to a child about a bad offense which he had committed, said to him, "Suppose I were the boy and you were the teacher, and suppose I had done what you have done, what do you think would be right for you to do to me?" The boy said, "I'd think you ought to have a whipping." Some teachers have absolutely no sympathy for a child. The teacher has forgotten how it was when he or she was a child of that age. Such a lack of understanding of child

nature is sure to make the child worse in the long run. If you are sympathetic, and even if you do have to punish the child rather severely, you will not lose the child's respect and admiration. Cultivate sympathy with and for children. They need it. So does everyone.

e. **Putting off what ought to be done now.** This does not mean that one should never suspend judgment. On the contrary, teachers should frequently suspend judgment until full consideration can be given the case. When a teacher is angry, he should certainly put off punishing a child. If he is tired and wearied at the close of day, and a troublesome case comes up for decision, it is not wrong to defer a final decision until the next morning. When a rule is being violated, however, it is wrong to keep putting off the time of beginning to enforce it. After making it, begin *right away* to have it enforced. If a child is misbehaving frequently, do not put off going to see his parents about it. The more you put off a thing of this kind, the more leniently you will treat it. That is the reason many lawyers defending a criminal try to get the trial put off as far as possible. Take all necessary time to determine just what the right thing is, but do not put off enforcing your judgment. The schoolroom is no place for shrinking from duty.

f. **High temper.** "He that ruleth his spirit is greater than he that taketh a city." If the teacher has a high temper and "flies up" easily, he should recognize that fact and resolve, before ever starting to teach, that, when angered, he will not speak immediately to children. It is so easy to say in anger what may be regretted ten minutes later. One is not excusable for losing his temper and speaking very angrily to children at school. Firmness does not imply anger at all. One

is usually lacking in judgment, if angry. If a teacher in a pitch of temper makes threats, which in his calm moments he sees to be utterly unjust if carried out, he will, of course, not carry them out; but, in the meantime, he loses the respect of the children, and rightly so. Cultivate control of your temper. Such a trait of self-discipline on your own part will serve you well as a teacher.

5. Factors influencing for good discipline.

a. **A hygienized school.** This has been discussed at length in the two preceding chapters. Health has much to do with conduct. Hygienic arrangements making for health, comfort and beauty certainly constitute a large factor in school control. So when you do your full part in making your school environment an hygienic one, you not only are providing for the children's health, you are providing for conditions of discipline, which are prerequisite for doing proper school work.

b. **Interesting work.** Interest is a *feeling of value*. Work is interesting when it is carried on in such a way that children may see its value, even feel its value. Then they have a motive for doing it. When they are thus interested, this very interest becomes a disciplinary power of no little importance. The method of dealing with the material which children are to study will determine whether the children shall feel its value or not. The method will involve the selection of the material, or rather the neglecting of some school material. When a teacher discovers a child's line of interest, she has a key to his conduct, and may largely control his conduct in terms of this interest.

c. **The minor details of school management reduced to a systematic routine.** In the third chapter of this division, you have considered the routinizing of the minor details of school life. Such system not only makes

for good management of classes; it also aids decidedly in the control of the children's behavior in school. Children may easily decline to obey a teacher, when they cannot mutiny against a system or a group procedure.

d. **Keeping all the children busy.** In making one's daily plans, one needs to have in mind those children who get through the preparation of their work early and who will soon be in mischief unless they have something else to do. Provision must be made to give them some more *educative* work to do. It is not sufficient to give something else, just for the mere purpose of keeping them busy. The thing given should really count in their education. A good thing is books in which they may become interested, and which they may spend their time reading, as soon as their lesson work shall be out of the way. This subject of busy work is discussed in Chapter XXIV of this volume, and nothing further need be said of it here, except to urge its importance as a device of discipline.

e. **Holding children responsible.** In the chapter on Assignment, mention was made of the value of holding children responsible for the doing of the work assigned. Here the point is made that children also must be held responsible for their conduct, or at any rate, for breaches of conduct. You are held responsible daily to the State and the Nation for your civic and moral conduct. Children are to learn in school and in home just what their responsibilities are in life and how they are to be met. When certain requirements are set, children should learn that those requirements in conduct must be met. There is no sense in saying, "Boys will be boys," and all such silly things, and then letting it go at that. The answer to it is: That is not the way to grow good moral and civic human beings.

There are certain social customs, just as binding as if written into law; there are certain obligations to one another; there are certain duties. When these are defined and understood, each child involved should understand that he is responsible as an individual for his conduct with regard to them. There must be no vacillation here.

f. Confidence in yourself as a disciplinarian. O. S. Marden said, "He can who thinks he can." Faith in oneself to do a task is essential to success. Some teachers believe in themselves so strongly as disciplinarians that nothing pleases them better than to get hold of a so-called hard school to discipline. They know child nature so thoroughly that they are able to turn all the buoyant, mischievous spirit into educative purpose. One such man took charge as principal of a "hard" school. The minister called on him that night and told him how his predecessors had been run off. The new principal smiled. Nothing pleased him better than a hard job. It proved to be a hard job surely enough. The boys would laugh in his face and say right out, "No, we are not going to do what you tell us." But he let them understand that he was going to have order and discipline and to have respect shown himself and the other teachers, or there would be no school. They resisted and defied, as in previous years. The school board recognized the seriousness of the situation and informed certain families that the board would back up the principal in establishing order. The principal went to his task. It was necessary to use the rod. In the first two weeks he whipped forty boys. Discipline was established. That was practically the last use of the rod. After that milder means were sufficient. This man remained principal three years and resigned to accept a larger work. The people besought him to stay. In pre-

vious years they had been glad to see the principal who could not control the school go at the end of the first year. Believe in yourself. Believe in boys and girls. "He can who thinks he can."

g. A combination of firmness and kindness. The parent who is not firm with his own children and lets them go to the bad is not kind to them. Parents and teachers must consider the future welfare of boys and girls as of greater importance than their present wishes, if the two conflict. One does not have to be a "scolder" or a "nagger" or a "fusser," to be firm in his attitude and dealings with children. A boy who had deliberately disregarded a teacher's instructions in a matter of discipline, when held responsible for his misdeed, was asked by his teacher, "Did you think that I did not mean it, when I said that leaving school without permission would be followed by punishment?" The boy said, "Yes, I know you never try to bluff us." That ought always to be the testimony of every child of his teacher, namely, that his teacher is not *bluffing*, merely because she speaks gently and kindly. The children size one up quite soon as to whether she means what she says, and they act accordingly. Be kind and gentle, but decided and unmistakable. When they do "size you up," let their opinion of you be that you mean exactly what you say, and that you can say the most certain things in the sweetest, gentlest, kindest sort of way.

h. Children's understanding of your requirements. In general, "ignorance of the law is no excuse." Let us not make that too literal in school. It is your task to have no more laws than necessary and to invite the children's participation in the formulation of these laws. It is also your task to keep the children informed of those laws, that no child may say, "I didn't know that was against the rules." There is no useful service in

any rule which is not appreciated and enforced. Do not punish a child for an offense, if convinced that he *was* ignorant of the law governing the offense. Explain the law and give him another chance. Again, if you feel that you may be to blame for improper instruction and interpretation, repair the omission and give him one more chance, with no suspension of punishment for future offenses. Be sure that the children *understand the laws* by which they are governed. Lead them to appreciate them as *their very own*. Then you can say, "These are your own laws. Don't you help make them? And then, aren't you going to obey them? You have made them, and I am bound to enforce them." Give *only one* more chance. Give no second chances.

i. **Anticipating difficulties.** This does not mean that you are to go along day by day seeking trouble. It is to say that children, left to themselves under certain situations, are going to get into trouble. It is for you to learn as soon as possible what those situations are and prevent trouble. For example, the *first day* of school, if you stay indoors and let the children go to the playgrounds alone, you are likely to have some bad fights to settle. To anticipate this fact is for you to be on the grounds. You can get some games going, and the boys get used to each other without having to fight. The first day of April is a time for mischief. Get to school early. If the mischief does not assume aggravated proportions, you may well enjoy the fun with them. Once, on April 1st, when the author went to his classroom, he found a note lying on his desk. The students were apparently studying seriously. He opened the note and read, "April Fool!" The whole room probably knew what was in the note and approved putting it there. Such a thing as that is not to be taken as insolence and disrespect. It can best be managed by

another way. He smiled and said, "I have heard of people's writing letters and forgetting to sign their names, but here is a case of some one's signing his name and forgetting to write the letter." That broke the tenseness of the situation. All laughed and that was the last of it. Even though you use your children in drawing up the laws, you may expect, in two or three weeks, when the novelty is worn off, that children will begin to violate their own rules. Just be ready for it, and "nip it in the bud." The thing to do is not to hunt trouble, but just to be ready and to have your mind made up calmly how you will deal with it. In fact, if you carry out the suggestions herein made, you are likely to anticipate nearly all the difficulties and thus prevent them.

j. Knowing how children feel and think. If you have not forgotten your own childhood, your own childish feelings, your joys, sorrows, hates, loves, and the like, you have in this alone a big qualification for becoming a successful disciplinarian. If you may associate with children, not as a chum and an equal, but as their friend and comrade, if they feel this friendship so that they run to meet you in the morning and seek your presence on the grounds at recesses, you will thus win the way to their hearts, and your discipline of them will be largely a spiritual matter. As you grow older in years, try to retain your childish vivacity, your childhood friendliness, so that your presence will always be sought by the children. Thus only can you retain your continued usefulness as a teacher. You will greet them across the street, and wave to them across the field. Thus your influence goes out to them to influence their lives for the better. If you are unable to understand the feelings and thoughts of childhood, the spiritual joys and rewards of teaching will be denied you. If

you do understand them, your labor is not in vain, and your recompense is everlasting.

k. Not governing too much. This term must be used with caution. Government is necessary for order, and order is necessary for teaching; yet the best governed schools show very little effort on the part of the teacher in the matter of government. In other words, the school situation is so constructed and the teacher's personality so congenial that everything moves smoothly and calmly. On the other hand, if a teacher must be calling someone down all the time, must be scolding and rebuking many times during a recitation, the teacher may well ask, "What is the matter with ME, that I have to do this?" In a case of that kind, it would be the teacher who was at fault, in some degree at least. In other words, the best government is likely to be most hidden, or least public. Some superintendents say that they can take in at a glance whether everything is going all right.

There were two teachers in adjoining rooms. One room was a sixth grade, and the other a seventh grade. Both teachers were normal college graduates. In the sixth grade room, the teacher was very loud in her manner and was continually taking the pupils to task. As the day advanced, the loudness increased and the discipline became worse. In the other room, the teacher was smaller physically and had a less imposing physical personality. She was a quiet, gentle soul. When she walked across the floor, she did so on tiptoe. Her gentleness and quietness were contagious. While she was quick and active, in some way it did not make a noise. This manner was contagious. The children were quick and active, but quiet and gentle. It seemed that she never had to take any child to task. Discipline was easy. Though kind and gentle she was strict and firm. She

held the children rigidly to the assignments and to proper conduct. Yet it seemed to be absolutely no effort. She seemed never to scold anyone at all. This was the first year's experience for both these teachers.

1. Friendliness with parents. It must not be forgotten that the friendship and the support of parents are strong allies of good discipline. A given teacher had regularly called on a different family each afternoon. It was real recreation for her. She did not talk to the people much about school work. She would talk to them about anything that might come up, just as if she were visiting any other friends—what appeared in the papers; the improvements of the community; and any other thing of value. If she were visiting and there came up a bit of improper gossip, she managed some way to turn the conversation soon, without offending the one whom she was visiting. If she were asked, "Don't you think that this person ought to make reparations for his wrong?" referring to a man or a woman in the community, the teacher, instead of taking sides and putting herself in position to be quoted, would say, "Are you sure he did that? I do not know enough about the case to say just now." Soon she managed to change the subject, by saying, "By the way, what do you think of the coming of the new railroad through our section of the State?" The conversation was turned from gossip to things constructive. The people came to look forward with pleasure to her visits. If children went home with any complaints about the teacher, the parents would very readily say, "You can't tell me anything about the teacher. She is a lady. She will treat you right, if you will do your part." At every point the parents were ready to back up the teacher. They would have never done it had she not previously won their friendship.

m. **Mastery of subject-matter.** When children see that you are a master of what you teach, their respect for you immediately rises. If you must look into the book to see whether the children have answered correctly, their respect for you is lowered immediately. Your mastery of subjects in previous years is not sufficient; daily preparation is as necessary for discipline as for teaching. The thing that struck consternation to the enemies of Jesus was that "He spake as one having *authority*." When you speak and teach, however quietly and gently, as one having authority, you are already a long way toward success as a disciplinarian.

n. **Persistence.** This means *standing through*. It means holding out, continuing straight through to the goal, not turning aside because the task is hard. If you have certain requirements, hold to them. It is wrong to enforce them one day and fail to enforce them the next day. It is right to go straight ahead, *persisting* in the course which you have decided to be right. This makes for good discipline. Do not excuse "I forgot" more than once.

o. **Justice.** It is an evil day in a teacher's career when the children come to the conclusion that the teacher does not treat them fairly. It is a big point in his favor when they report generally that "He will treat you right." The teacher decides issues on the basis of principles, and not on whim or temporary feeling. Anger is absent. Gentleness is present. The law is interpreted and applied to the case. The teacher goes very slowly about inflicting a punishment, unless he is able to show the justice and the reasonableness of it. Two boys one day deliberately played truant. The next morning the boys came in. The teacher took them aside. He said, "I am glad to see you back. I missed you yesterday after you were gone. Your going away,

as you did, embarrasses me greatly. You see, boys. I *like* you. I think a great deal of you. It would hurt me to punish you. You are my friends. What shall I do about it? What do you think about what you have done?" One replied, "We feel mighty mean about running off, and deserve a whipping." Said the teacher, "I shall have to give it to you, but I am sorry you have forced me to it." There was no protest from them, for the boys felt that their teacher wanted to be just. A principal was succeeding very much better than previous principals. A citizen, noticing it, inquired of a teacher why school affairs were running so smoothly. The teacher replied: "The children are convinced of the principal's absolute *justice* to them." Remember that all three departments of government are combined in one person. The teacher is legislator, judge, and executive.

In a certain school the boys frequently applied to one another, in anger, an epithet that no boy could well take, as it applied disrespect to the second boy's mother. The principal called them together, talked to them about the seriousness of the use of such expressions. He appealed to them not to use it. He stated that, if there were no other source of justice, he could not blame one for fighting when called such a name. He explained to them that he desired to have all matters adjusted on the basis of law and justice. "It is against the law of this school to use such a term, and one using it shall certainly be punished. Then, if one of you boys shall be called by that name, report it and you shall have justice without fighting for it." The principal's heart was touched next week, when the worst boy in school, who had a violent temper, who usually fought on the least provocation, came deliberately, reported that he had been called that awful name, and asked for justice. He

had actually controlled himself. Teacher, have it known soon among your pupils that you can be depended upon to be *just* in your dealings with your pupils. Justice is essential to good discipline.

p. **Dealing personally with an offender.** This means that it violates the principle of justice for a teacher to punish a whole class for the offense of an individual. A certain teacher said, "If one of you speaks without permission this afternoon, I shall keep you all in an hour after school." Before long one spoke. The teacher carried out the threat. All the children but one felt that an act of great injustice had been done them. They went home with a great complaint against the teacher who in anger kept them all in because one spoke. Take this as your principle of guidance here: *Do not punish other children for the offense of one.* Let every child answer for his own conduct. There is, now, another side. It is permissible to offer a reward or an immunity or a privilege to the class as a whole, on condition that they all make good on a given proposition. The teacher may say, "If there is not a single tardy or unexcused absence in this room for the five days of this week, we may take an hour off at the end of the week and go down to riverside for a little outing. You must look after each other. I want to go myself. I want you all to go with me. One pupil can keep us from going. Will you try to keep each other from being tardy, or from coming back after an absence without a properly written excuse from his parents?" In the latter case, the public opinion helps to hold children in line for the reward that is ahead. In the former case, public opinion of the children will condemn the teacher in unmistakable terms. Deal with offenders as persons and not as a class. The social unit is difficult to deal with, if punishment is involved.

q. **Substitution, rather than repression.** This does not mean that children should never be repressed. Sometimes, it is necessary. Do not do it, if you can avoid it. On the other hand, the principle of substitution is wonderful in its results, if you may but learn how to apply it. It means that in a given child there is much nerve force that, apparently, must be expended in some way. He may be constantly striking other pupils over the head, when the teacher is not looking. The teacher takes occasion to talk to him, saying nothing about his faults. She talks about other things. She asks him if he would mind going to the library for a certain book each day, or going for her mail, the post-office not being more than a few minutes walk, provided his lessons are out of the way by that time. "Certainly not. I shall be glad to go." He is thinking of the importance which he has assumed in his teacher's consideration of him. He commits no mischief. Finally, when his lesson is out of the way, and his energy is ready to be expended in some way, he looks up and asks, "Do you want me to go for those books for you now?" or for the mail, as the case may be. She tells him that he may go. He is delighted. When he comes back, he notices that one of the books is entitled "Ten Boys on the Road from Yesterday to Now." He hands these books to her and asks, "When you are through with that book, may I read it?" That was what she wanted him to ask. Before long he is spending some of his energy in this book. In other words, she has slightly varied the school situation, and has succeeded in substituting a desirable response on his part for a former undesirable one. A nervous child is given a monitorial position. A fighting child is given a place on the ball-team, so that he fights for his side instead of fighting one person.

r. **A congenial personality.** It is not to be thought that one's personality is a matter entirely of heredity, or that it is not influenced by training, by study and by adaptation. It is the duty, not only of the teacher, but of everyone, seriously to strive to become a more winsome character, a more delightful person, a more congenial personality. Personality is, first of all, a composite of attitudes toward other people. Out of these attitudes come acts that impress and attract or repel others. If you have an interest in people, if you take delight in serving them, if you can talk to them in a way to make them feel that you consider them important, if the out-pourings of your life show forth a sincerity that is unmistakable, if your contact with people show forth a soul of service and dignity—then, you are growing a personality that will become more and more congenial. Such is a tremendous force for good discipline. Yes, dear young teacher, personality can be improved. It will mean much for you personally as well as for the prospects of success in your work that you endeavor to make this improvement. A two-years' course or more at a normal school or school of education would help you a great deal in this respect.

Bagley¹ reports Mr. F. L. Clapp, as making a study, showing the following elements of personality:

- 1) Address
- 2) Personal appearance
- 3) Optimism.
- 4) Reserve or dignity
- 5) Enthusiasm
- 6) Fairness
- 7) Sincerity
- 8) Sympathy
- 9) Vitality
- 10) Scholarship

¹Bagley, W. C.: *School Discipline*, pp. 30-33. Macmillan, 1914.

Look over this list. Study these items. In which ones can you, by deliberate effort, make improvement in your own personality?

1) Can you by study, observation and self-control, improve your method of meeting people, face to face, especially those whom you have not met before?

2) What in your personal appearance could be improved? Get some of your friends who are experienced and older than you to advise you frankly.

3) Do you face the world with a smile? Do you look on the bright side of things? Can you do more of it?

4) Do you have the reserve and the dignity that you admire in a teacher? What would you have to change to have it?

5) Are you enthusiastic or languid? Can you improve here?

6) You have read above the topic of justice. Are you just? Are you really fair in your dealings with people, especially with boys and girls?

7) Are you really sincere, or do you sometimes try to deceive people? Is your word as good as your bond? Can one look into your face and see sincerity written in your countenance?

8) You have previously read the topic involving sympathy with pupils. Do you have real sympathy, or is there room for growth here?

9) Vitality. This means life. Have you got it, or are you a slow-going creature that needs constantly to be prodded? Can you get some more "pick up" in you, or are you already bubbling over with it so that you need no more?

10) Again and again, do you know what you are to teach? Do you take the pains day by day to attain unto real mastery of your subject? This is scholarship.

To improve in any of these respects is an improvement in one's personality. Add to these *generosity* and *courtesy*. Are you generous? Can you meet people, especially pupils, half-way, showing them that you are really generous to a fault? Courtesy implies a great deal more than having *good manners*. Sometimes, it even involves a temporary departure from good manners in order to show consideration for another's feelings. A teacher who had been reared in a good home, and who had most gracious manners, was spending the night in the home of one of her patrons. She saw that the father, mother, and the other members of the family all poured their tea into their saucers to drink. Out of *consideration for their feelings*, she poured hers into the saucer, too. She knew better, but was not hurt by this temporary departure from conventional manners. A month later she was teaching in school a lesson on good manners at the table. One of the things taught was that tea should not be poured in the saucer. She did not, of course, suggest that anyone in that community did that. Still later she was visiting in the same home, and discovered that her teaching had carried over and was being observed in that home. It is said that once in the White House the First Lady of the Land saw one of her guests drink the water from his finger bowl. Immediately she drank hers. This example was followed by all the others at the table, to save the feelings of the guest. That is real courtesy. It is the expression of consideration for the feelings of others. If you would be courteous to others, be courteous to them *in their way*. Yes, generosity and courtesy help make up a congenial personality. In which of all these respects do you think that you can improve most by real effort on your part?

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2. Morehouse, F. M.: *The Discipline of the School*. Heath, 1914.
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(The foregoing three books are devoted altogether to the study of school discipline. At an early time, get one of these books and read the whole of it.)

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. What do you understand by the discipline of a school? Write it out in words.
2. What purposes are served by good school discipline?
3. To what extent is each of the "obstacles to discipline" mentioned by the author a true one? Take up each one, discuss its seriousness and decide upon a practical plan in each case as to how to overcome it.
4. Which of these "obstacles" have you observed in a school-room? What could have been done in the given case to overcome it?
5. Can a teacher ever be the chief cause of poor discipline in a school? Are the ways mentioned by the author true to life?
6. What is "nagging"? Give six concrete cases which you have witnessed. How can it be overcome or prevented?
7. Take up each "factor influencing for good discipline"; criticise each. Is each a true factor? Write out a list of the factors which you can employ now. Which can you employ, with a little practice? Of which of these factors are you already a master? What other factors ought to have been included?
8. Is there anything of value in topic *l*? Or *m*? How?
9. Have you answered the questions appearing in the discussion after the list of elements of a congenial teaching personality? Write out the list of the elements on which you are going immediately to work.
10. Write down here a list of the values which you have derived from the reading of this book. Make another list of the points on which you need further help. Send your list, with your criticism of the chapter as a whole, to the author of the book.

CHAPTER XXI

DISCIPLINING THE SCHOOL—2

PUNISHMENTS

By assigning a whole chapter to this topic, it is not meant to emphasize the importance of punishments, when relatively considered in connection with the other topics of teaching and of management. As a matter of fact, punishments represent the exceptional occurrences of school teaching and managing! Good teachers have to punish children very infrequently. As this matter is one of infrequency, whenever it is necessary to make use of punishment, the beginning teacher needs to have the benefit of the experience of those who have been regarded as successful teachers.

1. The meaning of punishment. If you will re-read Chapter I, division 3, topic c, paragraph 7, c), you will see how punishment relates to the psychological aim of education. A child's acts, thoughts, words, feelings, and the like, are what they are, because of the whole nervous system which he has and because of the situation in which he is placed. Whatever he does may be analyzed into *situation* and *response*. Some of a child's acts are desirable and some of them are undesirable. His undesirable acts will sometimes come as naturally as his desirable ones. Whatever his acts may be, whether desirable or undesirable, if continued long enough, they will become his character. It is necessary for those who are trying to direct a child's education to put such approval upon desirable acts and arrange for

the exercise of the child in these acts that his character may be developed through the performance of acts which society approves. It is also necessary for educators to put such disapproval upon undesirable acts, thwart, restrain, hinder their manifestation, as well as try to keep the situation from developing that calls them forth. *Social disapproval of an undesirable act, personal discomfort resulting from it, is punishment*, however it may be effected, and it serves to become associated with the doing of an undesirable act so that when the situation occurs which evokes such an act, the tendency to do the act is less strong and, indeed, may absolutely prevent its performance. Discomfort of any sort, associated with an act, weakens the act.

2. Purposes of punishment.

a. **Personal.** The effect is on the person himself. It brings about a *change of one for the better* by eliminating, or restraining, or thwarting, acts or responses of a child that are hurtful to either himself or to other people. It is to associate discomfort, or pain, or unpleasantness, with an act of a child, to the end that the act which brought the discomfort may not be retained in his life and repeated in subsequent situations. Punishment is useless, if it fails to do this. As children are highly individual, so punishments must be related to the *individual's* total make-up. The same punishment will not bring the same results in all children. Punishment is needed in an individual's life, because there are in his nature tendencies to evil conduct as well as to good conduct. The child is not responsible for what is in his nature. You and I are responsible, however, for finding out as soon as possible just what his nature is, and how it is different from that of the other children; otherwise, we cannot go very far in directing his conduct.

A fine thing to remember in education is that you may actually "overcome evil with good." In other words, nature has equipped a child with so many tendencies to good conduct that if you may learn how to put them all to work, there will be left no time or energy with which to give expression to the evil tendencies of nature. That is why punishment becomes the exception, rather than the rule, in your control. Usually the better teacher a person becomes, the rarer punishment becomes. Because people know so little about employing and using and exercising the useful and good tendencies of nature in children, they must, if they are in earnest about the education of those children, employ punishment to some extent to inhibit those acts of children which society disapproves. While punishment is unpleasant both to the recipient and to the punisher, it is better that this be so now, than that the child should grow to adult life with such defects in his character that his whole life is made unsuccessful by reason of them. Punishment would not accomplish any purpose if it did not cause unpleasantness or pain to the recipient.

Then punishment may be said to have for its purpose, personal to the recipient, *the reform of the offender, the correction of his conduct, the prevention of the repetition of behavior* that infringes upon the welfare of others. If effective, punishment becomes rare and its use will be temperate. The most useful punishment is so connected with offenses and is administered with such love and patience that in most cases it will either now or in the future meet the approval of the offender.

Punishment is not to retaliate, to be retributive, to "get even with" a pupil, to gratify the anger of the punisher. That is all wrong in spirit and purpose. Its sole purpose, so far as the individual is concerned, is so

to associate unpleasantness as an accompaniment of, or as a close consequent to, undesirable behavior that such behavior will be eliminated from the total behavior of the child.

b. **Social.** Not only must the individual be saved from the consequences of his own conduct, but the welfare of others must be protected from such conduct as well. The welfare of the group in which a child finds himself must be considered. Really there are many such groups. He is a member of the school group, a member of a family group, a member of the neighborhood group, a member of the state. A child must be so socialized that his individual variations which transgress the reasonable rights of others will be eliminated from his conduct.

Children in a given schoolroom have certain rights. Their parents have bought these rights with their taxes and through their performances of duties as citizens of the state. Among these rights are *life* in this particular social group, *liberty* to get an education through the ministry of the school, and the *pursuit of happiness* in the school situation. Therefore, the children must be protected from the bad boy who would make their life a burden; they must have the freedom to study and carry out the directions of the teacher, undisturbed by other children; their school happiness, as a very means of education itself, must be free from destruction by those who are of predominantly evil habits. Unless a child may be protected in these rights, in his childhood, they will be, to a large extent, unrealizable in adult life.

3. **Kinds of punishments.** The punishments employed may be discussed under three heads: Undesirable, doubtful, and proper.

a. **Undesirable punishments.** The punishments that

are listed and discussed below are classed as undesirable, not that they never accomplish a useful purpose, but that their outcome is so frequently undesirable that it may be well for the *beginning teacher* to try to avoid them. In fact, to use some of them is almost sure to bring about embarrassments and trouble.

1) *Sarcasm, ridicule, satire, scolding, nagging.* It is not necessary to take these synonyms here and give exact shades of meaning to be found in a large dictionary. Just enough will be said about them to indicate that they are a teacher's tongue weapons. The teacher is a master; the pupils are subject to his or her authority—and sarcasm, ridicule and satire used by a teacher upon children represent a degradation, of dignity or authority that is reprehensible and inexcusable. While equals, as Members of Congress, may punish each other in that way, it is unjust, unfair and wrong to make a child the butt of your ridicule, or the victim of your satire. Whichever one of these terms may name the actual use one makes of his tongue, such a punishment entirely fails of its purpose. It antagonizes the child; it is detrimental to his learning. A child that is "scolded" or "nagged" has his mind on the "scolding" or the "nagging" and he cannot get it upon the task in question. A sure way to cause a child to fail on an examination is to give him a good "scolding" or "nagging," just before he begins. Never use this method of punishment.

Have you ever heard such expressions as "I'll eat you alive," "I'll shiver your top timbers," "I'll knock your head off," "I'll make you a head shorter," "I'll skin you alive," "I'll beat the life out of you," or "I'll knock you through the side of the house?" It is hoped that you have never heard them anywhere, yet they have been used, with many others, in the schoolroom.

Instead of such as these, say what is necessary and be through with it.

2) *Personal indignities.* This term, as used in educational literature, ordinarily includes such acts of punishment as “wringing the child’s nose,” “twisting her hair,” “pulling the ears,” “sealing the lips,” “mashing the mouth,” “slapping the jaws,” “snapping the head,” “boxing the ears,” “shaking,” “striking the head,” “knocking down,” and others. The ill effects of such punishments are usually to win the hate, instead of the love, of the child. He will never recognize the justice of such a punishment, regardless of his offense. It will become a topic for gossip in the community. It will bring the teacher undesirable notoriety. It will help to solidify the pupil group against the teacher’s authority. It will bring complaint from parents. A superintendent of schools instructed his teachers against the use of these modes of punishments. One day one of them “slapped the jaws” of a fourth grade girl. It happened that the child had a sore jaw, coming from a bad tooth. It is easy to imagine the intense anger that was caused in the home of that child. Her jaw was hurt so badly that she was unable to come back to school for some time. When the superintendent asked the teacher whether she remembered the instructions against “slapping the jaws,” she said, “Yes, but I just did not think.” Start out determined not to use these modes of punishment.

3) *Prolonged torture.* This may be illustrated by such things as requiring a child to stand and hold a big dictionary or a big Bible in his hands for, say, five minutes, or some length of time. Before the time is up, the torture comes to be almost unbearable. The torture results in a child’s hating the dictionary or the Bible or the teacher. The association of the punishment

is with the dictionary, or the Bible, or the teacher. It is not with the offense. The punishment, of like kind, may be the bending over with fingers just touching the floor, for a given length of time. There are proper punishments, to be discussed further on in this chapter. Avoid those which produce "prolonged torture."

4) *School tasks as punishment.* This may be illustrated in the giving of an extra spelling lesson to prepare, the writing of forty extra sentences, the working of twenty extra examples, the preparation of an extra chapter in history, the reading of twenty-five pages of good literature. Such a procedure does not produce a very favorable effect in the child's mind towards the material used as punishment. The memorizing of Bible verses has actually been used as a punishment. If the punishment is to be "detention" after school, let it be that the child might do some useful work, but the work should be done as an opportunity and as a saving of time. The work itself with useful school materials should not be the punishment. Instead of saying, "You have got to stay here and write forty sentences with at least ten words in each," in which the child's antagonism is against the work, it would be better to say, "Since it is necessary for you to remain here twenty minutes for misbehavior, you might save your time by preparing part of one of your lessons for tomorrow." Of course, if a child be kept to do a piece of work which he has neglected, have the child come to think of the teacher's giving him an afternoon opportunity and a privilege of cleaning up his record for the day. It is possible to manage it so that the child will not come to hate the materials of school work, or the teacher, for the necessity of punishment or the making up of work.

5) *Punishment in anger.* The teacher must learn how to govern his or her temper. It is permissible to

become indignant. A teacher, of necessity, feels very keenly against certain offenses. The wise teacher has learned to control himself or herself, for the time being, while that emotion is surging, and does not give way to his temper and do or say things that will be regretted soon after. This refers to any sort of punishment; this caution is not confined to corporal punishment. When one is under the influence of emotion one may do some very foolish things. Wait till the emotion passes, and then act upon the basis of calm judgment.

6) "*Demerits.*" This punishment might be listed as doubtful, rather than as undesirable. In view of the tendency in education to center the children's interest in "merits" rather than "demerits"; in right things rather than wrong ones; in excellences rather than in errors—"demerits" would not seem, therefore, to be a desirable mode of punishment. If records must be kept, let them be records of achievements, of accomplishments, of positive acts, and not records of failures, of errors, of negative acts. The feeling of the value of going forward is more potent than the fear of a certain type of punishment to come when the "demerits" reach a certain total. The author is so thoroughly in sympathy with the values to be had from positive influences that he has no hesitation in classifying "demerits" as an undesirable mode of punishment, either for breaches of conduct or for failure to do work.

7) *Threats.* One confesses his inability to discipline by proper means when he gives way to threats. If under the influence of anger, he will soon come to make threats that cannot be made good, and should not be carried out. This lowers the teacher in the opinion of the pupils. It is not necessarily a threat to remind one of the rule covering the matter, of the penalty following the offense. In such cases, let the impression be

made that, if the pupil do a certain thing, he will be bringing the penalty down upon himself. The teacher does not want to punish anybody; but, if pupils do a certain thing, they inevitably bring upon themselves a certain penalty. *Keep the association between the offense and the penalty.* It is unwise to threaten, in anger, or otherwise, as the word "threaten" is ordinarily used.

8) *Calling names.* Sometimes a teacher comes from a community in which it has been customary to call people names, especially in anger. They begin to do the same thing in school, and soon get into trouble. They call the children "dunces," "fools," "blockheads," "dullards," "simpletons," and the like. Through suggestion they call pupils "simple" or "foolish." A college professor was conducting a class and a student reciting was discussing a certain topic. When he had finished, the professor said, "From what you say, either you or I—one of us—is very silly," implying that the student was very silly. The teacher is, or should be, in the minds of the pupils, some one on an exalted pedestal. Surely such a person cannot condescend to call pupils names, implying contempt or degradation.

9) *Retributive punishment.* This is the use of punishment to "get even" with a pupil. A teacher with the proper spirit cannot afford to do that. Punishment, if administered at all, must be for the two purposes stated at the beginning of this chapter. It must not be used to satisfy a little private grudge of the teacher. It must be for the good of the pupil, and not for spite. It must not be used to settle "old scores."

10) *Detention at recess.* The children need, even for educational purposes, the recreation and exercise available at recess periods; it is unwise to take it from them. If it seems well, because of their forfeiting the right

temporarily to play with other children, to deny a pupil his recess for a day or so, the pupil should be given a corresponding amount of time by himself. In general, children should be permitted to play with other children and their recess time should not be taken from them as a punishment.

b. **Doubtful punishments.** The word *doubtful* here is not to be taken in a negative sense, nor in a positive sense. It merely implies that the punishment mentioned in each case is to be carefully considered. It may or may not be the proper punishment to use. The caution is to be sure as to the wisdom of the particular punishment before using it. One is to proceed with caution, with hesitation, with doubt, until sure that the particular punishment is the right one.

1) *Sending a pupil to the principal.* This should be done if the pupil has really passed beyond the control of the teacher. A better way of managing it is to take him to the principal and give the latter a statement of the case. Merely to send the child gives him an opportunity to complain against the teacher and not state what he himself has done. It is, however, a reflection on the teacher's disciplinary authority to send many cases to the principal. The teacher should send a pupil to the principal, when the case involves a difficulty between two rooms. A teacher cannot well settle a difficulty between a pupil in her room and one in another room. Such a case is a legitimate one for settlement by the principal.

2) *Delayed punishments.* If a teacher be in doubt, it is better to delay. If either the teacher or the pupil be angry, delay is useful. A punishment is sometimes administered with greater justice the next day, after both teacher and pupil have reflected upon the offense and the penalty. On the other hand, such a delay de-

stroys the efficacy of punishment; and the quickness and certainty with which the penalty follows the offense add to the effectiveness of the punishment. The decision as to which is better in a given case must be made by the teacher on the basis of the purpose of the punishment. In this instance, will delay or quick action serve best to *change the child* for the better? It is the teacher's prerogative and necessity to decide when to delay and when to punish immediately, in terms of which will serve most to eliminate the offense and protect the welfare of the other pupils.

3) *Detention after school.* A great deal of "keeping in" after school is not a good recommendation for a teacher. It seems to indicate that the teacher cannot get things done in the regular school day. Students are kept in to make up the time lost, to make up lessons missed and for punishment for misdeeds. It is well for the beginning teacher, in starting out to do school-work, to decide to have as little keeping after school as possible. It is not advisable to decide that you will have none of it. There may be times when it is necessary. The author has in mind a teacher, who never used "keeping in" as a punishment. He did use the after-school period as an opportunity for making up work lost during the day. The ideal of work in his school was a hundred-per-cent ideal, everything in every lesson done as it should be for the day, nothing carried over. The ideal was so constructed and so maintained that a pupil felt himself or herself out of good standing in the school, as long as back work was still undone. If a pupil failed in class, the teacher did not say, with sternness and severity, "You boys have got to stay in after school till you do this work." The teacher would say in a kindly and gentle way, "I am sorry that you were unfortunate today in your recitation. I am will-

ing to give you a few moments after school and we will clear this all up so that there will be nothing left over.” It was not thought of as a punishment, but as an opportunity. Sometimes during the afternoon a student would be studying ahead for an early class the next morning; finding some difficulty, he would ask the teacher’s permission to stay a little while after school for help. Frequently there are matters that need investigating and for which the teacher has not the time in school. Such can best be done immediately after school by keeping for a little while those who are concerned. The beginning teacher needs this caution: in view of the fact that teacher and children are both more or less wearied by the work of the day, and their nerves are tense, any after-school discipline should be conducted with as great freedom from excitement and feeling as possible. Unless this caution be taken, it is easy to make a mistake. The closing caution on this point is that the teacher should make detention after school as infrequent as possible.

In a certain school the teachers had a large number in after school every day. One day the superintendent issued a direction that keeping in after school be discontinued for two weeks. They said, “What shall we do instead?” He replied, “Nothing.” The experiment seemed to show that the children were no worse by not being kept in.

4) *Dismissal from class.* Teachers sometimes find a pupil in a class deporting himself in such a way as to become very annoying. She sends him from the class, or sends him from the room. If the former, he may go back to his seat and continue his mischief; if the latter, he may outside the room commit even worse mischief. Better methods appear for dealing with a case of this kind. The first is the method of private conference.

Take the child aside privately and talk it over privately with him, showing him how his conduct is getting to be objectionable, and asking him if he will not volunteer to deport himself in the way which the teacher shall show him to be right. This will accomplish the purpose in most cases. If in a subsequent class the bad deportment is continued, the teacher should look him squarely in the face and say, with a firmness that cannot be mistaken, "I wish to know right now whether you are going to stop that, or whether you are not; tell me right now what you are going to do." In nearly every such case, he will agree at once to stop his bad conduct. If he refuses to comply, apply the remedy under "Offenses"—*Refusal to obey*, further on in this chapter. Dismission from class or room is of very doubtful value.

5) *Corporal punishment*. "Spare the rod and spoil the child" is a precept that comes down to us from long ago. It was probably quoted long before Solomon recorded it. There have been millions of children "spoiled," for lack of the rod or some other method of punishment that would associate discomfort with undesirable acts in the early years of the lives of these children. To be sure, they were punished; and others, too, were punished in the years of their adult life by means which society ever imposes for this lack in childhood. It seems a fundamental error to abolish by law the use of corporal punishment; yet where it is not abolished, the teacher should use it with discretion. Most teachers who have used this method of punishment have used it with discretion. From the failure of a few teachers to use it wisely and properly, it has been possible to bring about the legal abolition of this means of punishment in some places. The theory seems to be that it is better to let the multitude go to the bad for

lack of corporal punishment than to use it in an improper way in the case of the few.

The situation is not so bad as it might seem. The fact is that the more we learn about the very nature of children, the more we are able to put the good tendencies of their nature to work, and to leave the bad tendencies of their nature idle and growing weaker by disuse. When we are unable to go the whole way in a child's control in this way, there are yet many other means of associating discomfort with undesirable acts. So far as corporal punishment is concerned, the beginning teacher will note the following:

a) If corporal punishment is forbidden in your school division, either by state law or by regulation of the school, you will deliberately avoid resorting to this mode of punishment, come what may. You are responsible to the board for your conduct. The board is responsible to the people, or to the appointing power.

b) If corporal punishment is allowed in your state, or county, or city, you will not "whip for everything"; in fact, you will use the rod very sparingly. If you will look through the history of education and examine the pictures that represent education in the past, you will usually find in such pictures a number of switches somewhere in the picture, until you come down to the time of Pestalozzi. Look at a picture there; see this old schoolmaster in loving comradeship with his pupils, and not a switch in sight.

c) If you are going to use the rod, it is possible to talk over with the children in their quiet and unruffled moments the matter of punishments, asking them what sort of punishments ought to follow certain acts (but do not mention the acts, unless they are already occurring). The sense of justice of the generality of children is so keen that you may actually draw from them just

what offenses need to be followed by whipping. The fact is that they will name more offenses than needed, and the teacher cannot accept them all; but she can accept a few of them. Such are *playing truant, refusing to obey the teacher, obscenity and vulgarity, violent fighting*, etc. Sometimes when a teacher has had continuing trouble with a certain boy, she comes finally to the point at which in a conference with him, she may say, "You have been going on, disregarding the rights of the other children for some time. You have promised me that you would discontinue this thing and you have not kept your promise. What am I to do? I'll tell you; if this thing happens again, I shall whip you. You understand? If you do not do it again, what happens? No punishment. If you do it again, I shall have to use the switch. That will be very unpleasant for me. I shall not use it unless you force me to do so. Can you blame me? Understand now, the switch is not to be used, if you put an end to this thing. If you do not, it will have to come. I shall leave it to you and trust that you will make good." The teacher says kindly and gently, yet in a way that cannot be mistaken, something like the foregoing. If the child does not make good, the teacher should then make good her promise. To relax once undermines the teacher's authority. If the child has to be punished, the teacher can ask, "Who is to blame for this? What was our understanding? Did you keep your part of the contract? Even if you did not keep your part, I must keep mine, and must punish you, even if it is very unpleasant for me." Children should know in advance what acts will bring corporal punishment.

Bennett¹ makes the point that "Corporal punish-

¹ Bennett, H. E.: *School Efficiency*, p. 273.

ment should never be regarded as the last resort—tradition to the contrary notwithstanding. It is so immediate and tangible that it is often the most effective and refined ‘first aid’ cure of a child’s sullen and intractable mood.” The point here is that corporal punishment is not to be considered in the nature of the last resort, but as to whether it is the best and the proper punishment for the offense committed. Still it is well for the teacher to get on without using it as long as possible. Bagley¹ makes the following specific suggestions to young teachers as to the use of corporal punishment:

“1. Never administer punishment in anger.

“2. If a whip is applied, use a light ‘switch’ back of the legs or a light ruler on the palms of the hands. Do not strike the head, box the ears, or ‘shake’ the offender.

“3. If possible, have an adult witness.

“4. Obtain the consent of the parent if possible beforehand. (To confer with parents beforehand will often preclude the necessity of punishment.)

“5. Do not administer such punishment before other pupils.

“6. Keep a record of the offense, the nature of the punishment, and the time and manner of its infliction.”

If corporal punishment, then, is to be administered, it should not be administered in a spirit of anger or revenge. It should be severe enough to be effective, but not in any way brutal. It should not involve humiliation or excitement. The presence of an adult witness is of value, in case it is ever necessary to have an investigation of it, or a report on it. Otherwise, the child might say that he had been punished much more severely than was true. A child might deliberately fall to the floor and might go away and say that the teacher

¹ Bagley, W. C.: *School Discipline*, pp 195-196.

knocked him down. A disinterested witness could help sustain the teacher's report. When the misdeeds of certain children are discussed with the parents, the latter will frequently relieve the teacher of the necessity of corporal punishment by administering it themselves.

It is also better not to undertake to punish by switching a large boy, unless he voluntarily agrees to take it without resisting, in preference to suspension.

In conclusion, the beginning teacher will use the rod seldom. If it is necessary and the laws permit, she will not shrink from using it, because it is unpleasant to administer. She will not let her sympathy prevent her from doing her duty.

6) *Suspension and expulsion.* The teacher has the power to suspend a pupil temporarily; only the school board has the power to expel a child permanently from school. If a child deliberately refuses to comply with the reasonable rules of the school, and if he be large enough really to understand the meaning of the rules and the penalty, really too large to be corporally punished and compelled to comply, the teacher may suspend him, until he can decide that he shall agree to comply with the rules thereafter. If a punishment is decided upon for a large pupil, which would certainly be reasonable for a smaller pupil, and if the pupil refuse to take it, he may be suspended till he can decide to take such a punishment as others take, and, in this case, take the punishment set. If a child has become too bad to be retained in school, the teacher may suspend the child from school and ask the superintendent or the board to have a meeting so that she or he may come before the board and state the case, and the board may determine whether the child should be permanently expelled from school. As to "last resorts," expulsion is the *last resort*. That step should be taken when all

other methods of punishment seem inadequate to meet the case. It is a serious punishment. It shuts the door of the school to the child. It takes away his further opportunity of education. The teacher and school board, in consultation, should come to the very careful and calm decision that the welfare of the school calls for the expulsion of the pupil in question before this penalty should ever be inflicted. Of course, there are sometimes children who are so vile and filthy in their language and habits that the whole moral welfare of the school is endangered by the continued presence of such children in the school. Such children should certainly be expelled from the school and put under the oversight of reform schools, or other legal or educational agencies. Again, a child becomes so vicious, so rebellious, against the authority of the school, so contemptuous of the teacher's disciplinary control, that the continued presence of him in school will sooner or later bring down the whole régime of discipline. Such a pupil should be taken out of school, for the good of the school. Expulsion is the method here. Expulsion has been used sometimes, however, when other means would have accomplished the results desired. Let it not be so in your school.

c. **Proper punishments.** This class of punishments is called proper here because a careful teacher will be able to accomplish nearly all his or her disciplinary aims by their use, and because their use does not often bring dissatisfaction or parental complaint embarrassing to the teacher. The teacher may employ these punishments, or means of eliminating bad conduct, with expectation of their being effective, and without adverse criticism and complaint from anyone, especially if the teacher use them in the right spirit.

1) *Conference with pupils.* That face-to-face, heart-

to-heart private conference with a pupil who has been delinquent in conduct or work is a means which many teachers have employed with success. Others have secured no results from these conferences, because they have used them as an opportunity to scold and abuse the child to his face. The purpose of such a conference is to bring about serious reflection and understanding. It enables the teacher to show the child how he is throwing away his time, disappointing his parents, and undermining the success of the work of the other pupils. To be sure, the private conference has its limitations. A teacher should not expect that the results accomplished in a single private conference will be lasting in every case. With some pupils it will be necessary to hold another such conference before long. With others the conference has so shown up to them the badness of their conduct that they "turn over a new leaf" and their conduct becomes satisfactory. In a private conference the teacher should approach the point at issue by naming all the good points in favor of the child possible, so as to show him that he is not hopelessly bad, but that here is one point which, if he will clear up, will leave little with which to find fault. It usually goes to the heart of a pupil to be told that the teacher likes him and is pained by this behavior. Use the private conferences in your first dealings with pupils.

2) *Conferences with parents.* If your private conferences and the other means of discipline fail to be effective, in the case of a given pupil, it is in order to talk it over with the pupil's parents. Some cases there are in which parents have lost all control, if they ever had any, over the child, and they will frankly tell you that they "cannot do anything with him." On the other hand, many parents will take the child to task and inform him that his conduct at school must improve.

Again, it should not come to the point that a child must be seriously punished, or be expelled from school, by a growing progression in bad conduct, unless the parents should have known of it previously. Parents have the right to know how their children are getting on. If children's deportment is unsatisfactory, a personal and special report to the parents is in order. Use this method, but do not let it become a source of annoyance to good parents who are coöperative with you and are trying to have their children measure up to reasonable requirements.

3) *Reproof*. This is neither scolding nor nagging. It is calling to the attention of a pupil the fact that his conduct is unsatisfactory, telling him plainly just what the thing is that needs improvement, and letting him understand that you are expecting improvement. Reproof may be given in private conference; a pupil may be called aside for a moment or two for this purpose; a reproof may be given publicly. In other words, it sometimes becomes necessary to reprove a pupil for his conduct. When the necessity comes, have the courage to do it. Do not delay about it. There must be no mistaking what you mean. Do it in a kindly and gentle manner, but let it be absolutely sincere, firm, and direct to the point.

4) *Isolation*. It sometimes proves to be a sufficient penalty to have a child isolated from his social group, because he has forfeited the right to be, or sit, or play, with his fellows, and remain so until he may regain the right by better conduct. He may be removed in the classroom from among other pupils and seated in a corner up near the teacher. Once a teacher scolded a boy for his misbehavior at his seat and said, "You are unfit to sit by decent people; come and sit by me." The child may actually be removed from the room and

required to sit in a room with larger children and to return only at recitation time. The latter is a very effective punishment. The child feels that he is not in the right place and is anxious to get back as early as possible to his regular room and seat. It may also be the denial to a pupil of the privilege of playing with other children for so many recesses and of requiring him to play alone during the time. This and other punishments are effective in inverse proportion to the frequency with which they must be used.

5) *Loss of privileges.* There are many privileges which mean much to the pupils enjoying them. Such are the privileges of being monitors, of bringing books from the library to the teacher, of replenishing the fire, of going for the teacher's mail, of beating the drum or playing the piano for marching in, of keeping the Victrola in readiness for a piece of music at need, of sounding the gong for recess, of having places on public programs, of reading special books, of belonging to a school society, of playing with other children, of being on the team, etc., etc. In consequence of certain undesirable conduct, any of these privileges greatly appreciated by a certain child may be taken from him for a limited time, or until a certain achievement in conduct shall have been made. This is real punishment; it is a form of isolation. The effectiveness of it depends on the child's appreciation of the privilege withdrawn.

In some schools, a pupil who neglects his school work is denied the privilege of playing on any team till he comes up with his work. Once, in a certain high school, a boy had failed on a certain subject. It was a condition that a boy must make passing grades on all subjects to play on the team. A match game was to be played soon. The other members of the team believed that they could not win the game without him. They

made an appeal to the superintendent to permit him to play in this game. The superintendent showed them the advantage of building up a winning team to keep for several years to come, which could not be done, if school failures were played on the team, as they would soon drop out of school. So they got together and told the boy in question that he must come up with his work, as they wanted him to play. They took it time about, coaching him on his back work; soon he was able to make his examination and was then permitted to play in the game.

It is a legitimate punishment to withdraw from a child temporarily any privilege to which he may be entitled or to which he has been appointed. The restoration of such privilege should be conditioned upon an improvement in the pupil's conduct justifying the restoration.

6) *Characterization of proper punishments:*

a) *Temporary.* Really effective punishments will not have to be repeated continually.

b) *Natural.* This does not mean that, if left alone, the offense will bring its own penalty in a form and in a time to be associated by the pupil with the offense. It does mean that the teacher tries to make the penalty just fit the offense. It is not an over-punishment; it is not a make-believe punishment or farce.

c) *Close connection with the offense.* If too much time elapse after the offense, before the penalty comes, the pupil may fail altogether to connect the offense and penalty. He may fail to associate the discomfort with the act, and to experience it as a consequence of the undesirable act.

d) *Just.* Discipline passes by default, if a child be left feeling that an act of injustice has been done him by the punishment, especially after he has had an opportunity to reflect upon his deed. Certainly, it must

seem just to unprejudiced persons. Many have gone slow about punishing a child unless able to show him the justice of the punishment.

e) *Educative*. In terms of our definition of education, if the result of the punishment be to *change the child* for the better, in the matter of his conduct, surely it is educative. If the latter state of the child be not better than the former, the punishment has not been educative.

f) *A sure and certain punishment for wilful, premeditated and repeated offenses*. If a child "set at nought the traditions of the school," and proceed to act in improper ways, knowing that they are not permitted, deliberately transgressing upon the rights of others, and daring the teacher, trying to see how far the teacher will let him go in his meanness, the teacher needs to act quickly and bring that child to his senses. It should be known that the teacher is not a bluffer. It should be well understood that the teacher does not take foolishness. The child who wilfully disobeys reasonable school regulations should be taught once for all that he cannot get by with such conduct. In case of repeated offenses, the penalties should become severer.

g) *Varied to fit individuals*. Even though one may have a certain penalty to follow a certain offense, the severity of it may be varied in terms of the wilfulness, the deliberateness, of the offense. It may be varied in terms of whether it is the first offense and whether the child recognizes it as an offense to a degree that he will probably not repeat it. The mean, mischief-making, wilful boy needs more punishment than one who has been influenced by others to commit the first offense. Nevertheless, here is a point at which a teacher needs to use careful judgment so as not to be accused of being partial in the treatment of the pupils.

h) *The child understanding the offense and the penalty which it brings.* A child should never have the opportunity of saying that he has been punished “for nothing,” implying that he has no understanding of the offense of which he is guilty and no appreciation of the penalty which has been administered to him. As a school manager, the author has found it to be of very great advantage, in avoiding the necessity of giving punishment, to explain in advance thoroughly all school requirements, all the regulations, and the probable penalties. He has found that a proper understanding of the school regulations, combined with a proper spirit of enforcement, serves to eliminate much of the necessity for punishment, especially of the severer kind.

7) *Making up work.* A child who neglects his work should be required to make it up. This should be required as a school *requirement*, not as a *punishment*. (See “Detention after school.”) The work may be made up in school, at home, after school, or at some time, in some place and in some way that may seem reasonable. If a child repeatedly fails to do his work, something else should be used as a punishment, severe enough to make the child remember hereafter to do his work. It is certainly bad psychology to give *work*, and school work at that, as a punishment. Let the idea of punishment always be associated in the child’s mind with something else than work. We want to teach them the beauty, the sacredness, the privilege, the usefulness of *work*. It should never come to be lodged in their minds as *punishment*.

Here is a useful opportunity for private conference and for conference with parents. If the children are neglecting their work, the parents should know it.

4. **Methods of dealing with offenders.** The word “methods” in this connection is in a restricted sense.

It is the method of approach to the consideration of an offense. It is the spiritual variation to connect up with the personality of the offender. It is the manifest attitude of the teacher toward the offending pupil. It is the manner of passing, with the offender, over from the offense to the penalty, if there must be a penalty. It is the teacher's conscious attempt to put into the school situation those elements that call forth an expression of the pupil's better self and serve to inhibit behavior which is undesirable. It is the active use of the spiritual bond between teacher and taught.

a. **The teacher as a friend to the pupil.** The pupil does not always recognize the teacher as his friend, but sometimes as one who is trying to "put it over on him." It is the teacher's duty to be, and to show himself, a friend of all his pupils. True, it requires an effort in the case of some pupils, but what are we worth to our profession, if we are unwilling to undertake and to effect hard things? Most children, who recognize their teacher as their real friend, will not wilfully do many things to annoy, tease and disobey that teacher. Cultivate friendliness with the pupils so that they will seek your presence, instead of shunning you, just because they enjoy being with you. Wave at them across the street. Smile at them, bow to them, speak to them, as if you considered them all your own children.

b. **On ground at recess.** Most troubles, fights, and the like, between children occur on the playground at the recess time. Those things do not usually occur in the teacher's presence. The children's respect for their teacher serves to keep them from indulging in profanity, vulgarity, fighting, unfairness in games, and such other bad conduct as call for disciplinary measures. Her very presence there is not only useful for purposes

set forth in a preceding chapter, but as a preventive and an antidote for misconduct.

c. **Dealing with offenses in an impersonal way.** In a topic of the last chapter, it was shown how the personal element is a hindrance to discipline. On the other hand, if the teacher is a true friend of the pupil and the latter is convinced of it, if he or she lets the pupil understand that it is the law and order of the school that have been broken, that such breaches of the law always bring their penalties, the administration of justice in the case of offenders is made easier on both sides. If, however, your pupil ever gets the notion that you have a *personal* spite against him, and that you are not dealing with him impartially and *impersonally*, the settlement of his case is made much more difficult. Let law and order be the impersonal basis for your decision, and not the way you may happen to feel toward the pupil. In the latter case, you may punish too much a child whom you dislike; you may punish too little one whom you like.

d. **Removing temptation.** Some teachers say that if a child cannot withstand temptation, his character is very weak. Herein they err in conception of the function of the school. The school is to recognize that a child's character is not yet strong and is yet to be made strong. It cannot be made strong by what undermines it any more than the body can be made strong by what destroys its tissues. You do not feed the body with disease germs, to teach the body how to overcome them. The teacher, then, needs to recognize the present weakness of a child's character and not to tempt him beyond what he can bear; for exercise in yielding to temptation certainly makes yielding easier.

If children be sitting next to each other and take the same examination, it is a very strong temptation to look

on one another's papers. In the case of elementary school children, a test of twenty questions might be given. The children might number off into 4's (1, 2, 3, 4). The 1's might answer questions 1, 5, 9, 13, 17; the 2's might answer 2, 6, 10, 14, 18; the 3's might answer questions 3, 7, 11, 15, 19; the 4's might answer 4, 8, 12, 16, 20. There would be left very little temptation to look on each other's papers, as those sitting next to each other would not be answering the same questions. At the same time, the teacher would not be suggesting to the children that she does not trust them. In fact, nothing is said about it.

Without attempting to give many examples, the beginning teacher will find it well not to tempt the children too far. On the other hand, she will emphasize the doing of right at all times.

e. **Appealing to fairness.** In the opening exercises an opportunity is afforded for the teacher to give an exposition from time to time of the principles of fairness and to develop ideals of this virtue. She will be able to have them understand what is fair in games, what is fair in school work, and elsewhere. Children should understand that fairness means everyone playing the game, or doing the task, according to the rules previously agreed upon, as giving every individual the same opportunity; and that any deviation from these rules, when it will secure for one an undue advantage, is *unfair*. This refers to the work on the team, the work in the recitation, the work on a test, and so forth. Let these principles be well laid as groundwork for various trusts yet to come. If they be well laid and if the time come when a pupil must be punished, the child can be more easily convinced of the rightness of it. The punishment comes as a penalty for violating the rules. Other children in the same group submit to the same

penalty. The child cannot afford to ask for treatment which is not accorded to other children under the same circumstances.

f. Locating the real offender. It is poor psychology to punish a group for what an individual does. The pupils who are not guilty regard the punishment as very unjust. This does not call for excusing the group from punishment for a group offense. In this a teacher must be sure of being right. If an offense has been committed in the room, and if there are those in the room who know the facts of it and refuse to tell, when questioned by the teacher, then those who refuse to tell are guilty of an offense, which will be discussed below in a subsequent paragraph. Your task is to locate the real offender in misconduct. Incidentally, you may find others guilty of serious misconduct.

g. Not punishing for everything. It is a necessity that beginning teachers come to understand real childhood as soon as possible. There are many little things that come naturally in a child's life and that can be regarded as good or bad, according as they may be treated. In the old-time school a child would be punished, if he laughed aloud in school. The children were kept afraid to open their mouths. Laughter is natural. In school there must be a certain restraint of it; yet, if a really funny thing happens in school, let the children laugh at it, and you laugh, too. This gives both of you recreation. As soon as a sufficient degree of laughter has passed, you can say, "That will do, now; let's get to work." Study your individual children. There are many little acts for which punishment is sometimes given, which are, in reality, not breaches of good conduct at all. If a teacher starts out looking for trouble, it will be very easy to find it. If she starts out to punish for every little outcropping of human nature in a child,

she will soon have her hands very full of punishings.

h. Confession. A child should be given to understand and to believe that the teacher expects him to tell the truth, the whole truth and nothing but the truth. Not as an austere judge, but as a true friend to the child, she gives him the first opportunity to tell all there is about the offense. If a teacher begins by *scolding* a child, even a very good child will tell one lie after another. On the other hand, she may begin in a spirit of friendship and love for the child and a very bad child may be led to tell the truth straight through. Confession here means the child's telling, when given an opportunity, just what he did and the motives that cause him to do that thing. True confessions will never come from children, unless they regard the parent or the teacher as a real friend. George Washington never would have confessed to cutting down the cherry tree, if George's father had been a scolding man and had not been a real friend and comrade to George. Millions of other children have confessed their misdeeds, just as freely as George Washington did. The credit for such is not to be given to the child so confessing, but to the parent or the teacher who knows how to get into the lives of the children that those children are willing to confess and confide to them their inner thoughts and secret acts, regardless of the consequences.

Such confessions will usually come when the child is taken up and given a favorable opportunity to tell about it. A public opinion may sometimes be so built up in school as to require the offender to come forward and confess a misdeed, the other children refusing to stand for such conduct. The finest type of confession is in cases in which the individual, without waiting,

comes forward, tells what happened and asks what he may do to make it good.

As a teacher was approaching the schoolhouse one morning, one of the worst boys in school met him far out and said, "I want to speak to you a minute. A while ago I was fooling with the gong and broke it. I ought not to have been doing it. I am sorry that I broke it. I am willing to make it good. I do not know how to mend it, or where to get another one, but if you will have it fixed I will work to get the money to pay for it." Here was an offense actually settled by the boy who committed it. What other settlement would you want? The boy was given some janitorial work, which enabled him to get the money with which to pay for the repairs. There was no scolding of the boy; the friendship between the teacher and boy is retained to this day. The appreciation of the boy's parents for that kind of spiritual influence wielded by that teacher found expression in enthusiastic terms. The boy fixed his own punishment and administered it himself; yet that boy had previously been regarded as a very bad boy. You will not be able to get such confessions from pupils unless you are able so to get into their lives and hearts, that they esteem you as their real friend. Confession and reparation, as made by the boy here referred to, are stepping-stones in the building by self-initiative of real moral character.

i. **Accusing offenders by others.** "Tattling" is to be discouraged. Reporting on another pupil should not be forbidden. Children are to be instructed what sort of offenses they are under obligations to report at once. Children should be taught that offenses that reflect upon the honor, the integrity, the reputation of the school, and offenses which seriously interfere with the rights and efforts of others—all these should be

promptly reported. On the other hand, many little things are unworthy of notice. A girl brought a pistol to school one morning. She told some of her friends that she was going to kill somebody that day. Her friends lost no time in getting to the superintendent and saying, "Hazel has brought a pistol to school today; and she says that she is going to kill somebody, and we are afraid to stay here." These girls were right in reporting so serious an offense as this. On the other hand, it would have been silly had they reported, "Hazel smiled at a boy, when she was marching in this morning." This particular form of accusing or reporting others does not usually afford so serious a problem for school control as that which has developed in some schools in the form of a false code of honor. This is the case of pupils, who, when called upon by the teacher or the principal or the superintendent, to tell what they know about the offense, say, "Yes, I know about it, but I cannot tell, because I do not want them to be mad with me for telling on them." Now here is contempt of court for you. The proper disposition of such an offense will come in a paragraph below, entitled "Refusing to tell, when called upon."

The right management of the reports by other children is that we should (1) discourage tattling, (2) encourage immediate reports of serious offenses, (3) and require testimony from those who have it and refuse to divulge it.

j. Contracts. Not many teachers have experienced the value coming from this disciplinary device, in dealing with persistent offenders in the *teen age*. A given boy has, perhaps, a bad heredity, a bad home environment, a weak character, and you are unable to expect as much from him as from others more fortunate. He has been punished before; he has promised to do better; he

has fallen again. The teacher, who has shown himself or herself to be a real friend to this boy, notwithstanding his behavior, says to him, "I am sorry that you have been unfortunate in this. You have given me trouble before. Still I like you, and it grieves me that you should let yourself give way to conduct of this kind. You have within you a great deal of good. If you will but try, you can make a real man of yourself. I want to help you overcome these defects in you that cause this bad conduct. I can help you, if you will join with me. I know that you have many temptations, but the man that is worth while tramples them all under his feet and goes over the top. I want you to be a man who can win over himself. I have no desire to 'get even' with you. In fact, I am not interested in the past; I am looking to the future. If you are willing to make a new start and make a real fight for yourself, I am willing to forget what has already happened and let it all be in the past. I know you easily forget. Suppose then we write a contract. We shall put into it just what you are to do and also what I am to do. You will keep a copy and I shall keep a copy. If you will live up to the provisions in this contract, there will be no punishment for your past misdeeds. If you fail, then you will not be entitled to these benefits. Understand? I want to give you another chance, on your honor as a gentleman, to make good. You will put your name to it and I shall put mine to it."

The very bad conduct of a very bad boy was overcome a few years ago in a certain school by the use of this very device. The boy kept his contract in his pocket. His teacher reported that occasionally he would take his contract out and read it over again. Since his name was attached to it along with that of the superin-

tendent, he seemed to think that he was under special obligations to make good.

In another case, in which a half-dozen high school boys were taken for smoking on the school grounds in a hidden place, the principal talked to them in a firm but friendly way about the seriousness of the offense in its example before the smaller boys. The thing had been going on for some time. By careful approach, the principal finally asked these boys if, on condition that he might suspend judgment in the matter, they would be willing to agree upon their honor to discontinue the practice upon the school grounds for the rest of the session, yet several months, and whether they would be willing to attach their names to a contract to that effect. There was no scolding nor unfriendliness nor uncongeniality in discussing this case. The boys readily agreed that they had not been doing right and agreed to sign such a contract with the principal. It was signed and filed in the principal's office. The boys lived up to the very letter and spirit of the contract.

5. **School offenses.** Now that we have passed over the *meaning and purposes of punishments*, the *kinds of punishments*, and the *methods of dealing with offenders*, the most frequent school offenses will be taken up, discussed, and the disposition of them in some cases suggested. An act of a child or of a group of children becomes an *offense* when it thwarts the purposes of discipline, creates disorder, trespasses upon the rights of either pupils or teacher, or otherwise interferes with good, wholesome life of a school.

a. **Trouble on way to and from school.** In opening exercises and at other opportunities, the teacher should teach the children what are the real rights and duties of people on the road and on the street, and also the rights of the property-owners along the way which

they come. This will prevent much of such trouble. Then, if children on the road or street damage some one's property, steal his goods, or otherwise commit depredation, there must be a settlement for the offense. The teacher may administer punishment, or refer it to the parents for punishment. In any case, in addition to any punishment, the child should make good the damage to the person whose property is damaged or stolen. It is understood that a child is under the discipline from the time he leaves his parents' home in the morning till he returns there at noon or in the afternoon.

If the children engage in fighting along the way, the teacher should take immediate steps to get it discontinued. In most cases to get together the children involved and talk it over with them makes it possible to establish the guilty one or ones, and that is the last of it, so far as these are concerned.

There is one more kind of trouble that occurs along the road; that is between the children of two different races, if their schoolhouses are situated so that they use the same road home in the afternoon and are dismissed about the same time. The race trouble is difficult even with adults. It is no less troublesome with children. The best way in this is to teach the children quite early what are the rights and duties of the road, such as giving half of the road, in meeting others, and the like. If you can thus get into the children's minds a principle upon which to deal when troubles of this kind arise, it is easier for you. The matter of race, or vocation, or social standing and the like gives no one superior rights in the use of the road or sidewalk. Conference between the teachers or other officers of the schools of different races will establish the things which both sides will teach their children in these matters. Then, if a child deliberately abuses one of the other

race, the child who is to blame should be punished for it. The whole problem of discipline is to get children to recognize the rights of the other person and duties of himself in the situation, and to govern himself accordingly.

b. Damage to school property. Early in the session the children should be taught the meaning of the proper respect for school property. Such lessons will be the basis of the disposition of cases of damage to school property. Any damage, even accidental damage, by a pupil should be made good by that pupil. If he is playing ball and knocks a stray ball which breaks a window pane, the pupil should pay sufficient to put in another. If one deliberately and wilfully breaks out a window pane or does other property damage, he should not only make it good but should receive other punishment as well, unless he comes forward of his own volition, confesses it and offers to do what is right to make it good. Cases of honest confession should be treated more lightly than those in which the offender tries to get out of it. In some schools, when new desks are put into a room, a resolution is passed by the school board that any pupil who cuts or otherwise damages a desk must purchase the desk; that is, he must pay the price of a new desk, which will be purchased and put in the room, but the offender must then take the damaged desk. This regulation, if the children be helped and reminded of it, usually breaks up damage to desks. The children then otherwise care for their desks, to keep marks and the like off. *

Children mark on the walls. They stick paper wads on the ceiling. This kind of mischief is to be expected in normal children, until they are educated away from it. It will be necessary for the teacher to use punishment, when this occurs. This necessity will

be made less frequent by some good lessons on the duty of good citizens to public property. In one school the principal developed such a high degree of respect for the school building that the boys would have come near mobbing any boy found writing upon its walls.

c. **Whispering.** This is talking in school, and it includes talking aloud also, if it has become so bad as that. It seems a fine thing to have the children confer with each other in a coöperative way about their work in school. The fact is that children wish to confer more about the things that are to go on outside the school-room than about the things that go on inside. It is easy to permit children to talk to each other so long as they do not disturb others, but is a difficult thing to stop disturbance, when once it has started. Also, children become interested in what they are talking about and forget all about the disturbance to others. The best way to manage this is not to permit from the very first any talking to each other, except as a child may talk to the class in the recitation according to rules for the government of the class. This may be managed without punishment by firmly refusing to permit private talking between children during the school time.

d. **Giggling.** This will certainly accompany the offense mentioned in the preceding paragraph. It is permissible for children to laugh and have it over, if there be anything at which to laugh. On the other hand, the teacher should put an end to incessant giggling. Some of this, it is true, comes from nervousness and cannot be helped. The teacher should study the individual cases to be sure that this is the case. In all others, the mere giggling indulged in by many children should be made to cease.

e. **Note-writing.** This is an offense that usually gives more trouble in rural than in town schools. It

should not be permitted, and those who engage in it, after it has been fully explained to what that may lead, and what the attitude of the school will be toward it, should be punished by some reasonable punishment that will serve to stop it.

f. **Teasing, tormenting, bullying.** Frequently large boys will almost torment the life out of little ones, if the latter are easily teased. They will even go further and will torment them, bully them, till they make the little fellows cry. If the little ones resist, the larger ones who are thus far to blame will beat the little ones. The teacher must be on the look-out for this and protect the little boys. Larger boys must be taught that they cannot use their size and strength to torment the smaller ones. If they will not discontinue it, they must suffer a penalty for it.

g. **Hazing.** Along with the foregoing, is the reprehensible practice in some schools of hazing the new boys or the smaller ones. It takes various forms. A very dangerous form is that of "bucking." In this two boys, one on either side of a third boy, will take the third boy and strike his buttocks against a tree. Sometimes two boys are taken this way at the same time and their buttocks are struck together violently. This practice frequently causes injury to the victim which is either permanent or of long standing. The little son of one of the author's friends was "bucked" the year he entered high school. He was so badly hurt that a long period in the hospital was necessary and he was unable to go back to school that whole year. It was impossible in this particular school to establish the guilt of the perpetrators. No one would confess it. The victim would not tell on the perpetrators either to the principal of the school or to his own father. Let all forms of hazing be prevented, if possible, in your school.

h. **Truancy.** This is called by different names in different parts of the country. It is "running away from school," or "playing hookey," etc. In some systems there is the truant officer, whose task it is to arrest the truant and bring him to school. The offense has to be dealt with in all systems, whether under compulsory education or not, and whether there be truant officers or not. It is less frequent in rural schools than in town schools, because in the former the children have less opportunity to get together, and they will stay at school to continue the association with other boys, even if they do not like the school.

The successful dealing with this offense will require the combined work of teacher and parent. The teacher, alone will find it difficult to break up truancy, but the parents are usually glad to help break it up. They are interested in the child's education, and they do not want him to waste his time running away from school. This is an offense that justifies corporal punishment, certainly after the first offense, if the laws of your system permit the use of corporal punishment. In a very serious talk with the offender you can impress upon him the seriousness of the offense, and then you can tell him that, if this occurs again, you may have to use the switch. Get him to understand that. Then, before punishing him, remind him first of your understanding. Thus far, only individual truancy has been mentioned.

There is such an offense as group truancy. Several boys may make a bargain to run off together. In a certain high school on April 1st nearly the whole high school went off at noon. The superintendent had discussed previously such possibilities with his school board. They had reached an understanding that, whenever a pupil or a group of pupils played truant, such an act would

suspend them from school, and that they might be re-admitted only by permission of the board. They had decided to give children thus offending as much trouble as possible to get back, in order to give them time to reflect upon their conduct. When the students came back, the principal declined to receive them. He told them that the only way they could be re-admitted would be by permission of the board. Each one of them must bring a request signed by all nine members of the board, before he could be re-admitted. They first went to the chairman of the board and desired that he call a meeting of the board. The chairman told them that the members of the board were all busy men and that a meeting could not be called for three weeks. He then talked to them about what they had done and said that he did not know whether the board would help them get back into school, as the board was not disposed to take kindly to such foolishnesses as running away from school. The situation began to look serious. The students went back to the principal to get him to help them get a meeting of the board. The principal finally told them that, if they would see all nine members separately and get their signatures to their request, he would re-admit them. They prepared their request and started out to different parts of the city to see the men. It was difficult to find some of the members. Some of the members, to make it as difficult as possible, declined at first to sign their requests, until after so many others had signed. These forty children were finally admitted, after a day of agonizing attempts to get back into the school. When admitted, they said that they would never again be caught in such a trap.

i. **Stubbornness and impertinence.** Some children are by nature and by the development which they have had in their home environment exceedingly stubborn.

There are others who seem to be stubborn, whose difficulties are other than stubbornness. The author has in his own experience mistaken two cases of deafness for stubbornness. If a child at home has been permitted to have his own way and to do nothing, unless it suited him, that child may in the school have to be forced to do something which he refuses to do. A certain teacher, in dealing with a case of that kind, made of the boy, sixteen years old, a reasonable requirement. He would not move, nor obey, in any way. The teacher started to switch him. He rebelled. So the teacher, instead of forcing the boy to take his punishment, told him to go home and talk it over with his father, saying that, if he at any time decided to take his punishment, he might come back to school. The next morning the boy came in smiling and said, "Well, I have come back to get my whipping." He stood and took it without flinching, and did not show such stubbornness again.

The teacher must discipline the school, and no stubborn child should be permitted to stay in school, to destroy its discipline, and to set a bad example to the other children. If a child refuses to obey, if he cannot be induced to obey, through mild and gentle means, he must be forced to obey through more unpleasant means. The teacher is there to be obeyed. The child is there to obey the teacher. Of course, the teacher is not going to be boasting of having authority, but when it comes to the point of necessity to enforce one's authority, the teacher must not waver in his or her determination to do so. The teacher must not give unreasonable requests to children to be performed. When given, even for the child's own education in submission to the constituted authorities, these requests and commands must be complied with. When a child says to a teacher, "No,

I am not going to do that," the time has come when something must be settled once and for all. If the child may be angry at the time, it will be all right for the teacher to say, "Think that over for one hour, till you have had time to cool down, and then let me know whether you think you have treated your teacher right. I shall call for your answer at the end of one hour." If, in the meantime, the child shall relent and decide that he has done wrong, then the teacher may discuss with him what he considers the proper punishment for such disrespect as he showed his teacher. If he still is of the stubborn mind, and does not let up in his impertinence to his teacher, one of two punishments is in place: either corporal punishment, when permitted by law, to satisfy the case, if he give in and agree to behave more decently in the future; or suspension, if the pupil is a large boy, unless he shall prefer to take corporal punishment instead, administered by the teacher, the boy's father or some one else in authority. If the child be small, and if the laws do not permit corporal punishment, such punishment as is permitted must be made sufficiently severe to bring that child to a realization of his impertinence. Extreme stubbornness and impertinence cannot be tolerated at all.

j **Fighting.** It is natural for boys to fight, if they get angry with each other. This offense can best be dealt with by heading it off. Most fights take place at the recess periods. The teacher's presence there will prevent nine tenths of such fights. Boys sometimes fight for lack of something else to keep them busy. If they are engaged in play, their minds are on the game. If the teacher is there to supervise the games, there is less likelihood of their getting into a fight because of accusing each other of not playing fair. The best way, then,

in dealing with fighting is to prevent it by using the boys' energies in something else.

If a fight occurs, it is well to get the parties together, after anger has cooled down, and try to get the facts. Usually both are to blame, though sometimes one is decidedly to blame. If they recognize that they were angry, fought before they had time to think, and seem to regret it, the teacher may well let them shake hands and make friends without other punishment. If any damage be done, it would be well to discuss with them what they think they ought to do to repair it. In their quiet reflection you can frequently draw from them as satisfactory a settlement as you yourself could propose. If, however, a boy get in an angry rage and beat up another, it will need something further to atone for his behavior. That may be to deprive him of all opportunity to play with other children for two or more weeks, or even to leave the school until a few minutes after others are gone, so as to let him feel the weight of his isolation. If he is a bully, so that it is dangerous for other children to be associated with him at school, the teacher may well consult with the board or superintendent about the advisability of expelling him from school.

k. Refusing to give evidence, when called on by the teacher. A man took charge of the schools of a small city a few years ago. He found there a very false code of honor. The boys were committing serious offenses, but it seemed impossible to locate the offenders, because they refused to tell on each other, when questioned. The superintendent, in his investigations, would ask, "Do you know anything about this case?" The boy would say, "Yes, I suppose I know all there is about it."

Superintendent: "Did you do it?"

Boy: "No, I did not do it."

Superintendent: "Who did it?"

Boy: "I can't tell. It would make all the boys mad with me."

The superintendent was new and wanted to be sure of his ground before doing anything drastic. He called the board in consultation and presented the situation to them. Several members of the board believed in that old false code of honor which the boys were practising, and were not inclined to have force applied to get the boys to give evidence, even though the city was a county seat, and there were lawyers on the board. The superintendent did not think it well just then to stage anything sensational and quietly waited. A few days later an opportunity was presented to bring the situation to a head. Something of importance was stolen from one of the cloak rooms. It was found out that a certain boy knew who committed the theft. The boy was called to the office. The following took place:

Superintendent: "Do you know who did that stealing?"

Boy: "I do."

Superintendent: "Who was it?"

Boy: "I'd rather not tell; it would make him mad with me."

Superintendent: "You refuse to tell me who did that stealing and yet you know who did it?"

Boy: "Yes."

Superintendent: "Well, you take your books and your hat and your other things and go home. You stay there till you can make up your mind to give me the evidence for which I have asked you in this case. Get your things together and come back by the office; I will send your parents a note setting forth the reasons for your dismissal."

The boy went home and carried the note. Imme-

diately there was an appeal to the board for the reinstatement of the boy. The chairman asked the superintendent to get the board together to consider the case. This was done. The parents made a simple statement that the boy had been improperly dismissed from school and asked that he be taken back. The chairman asked the superintendent for a statement which was given, in substance as follows: "Gentlemen of the board, you will recall that I recently spoke to you of the existence in our schools of a false code of honor. By this code each boy feels that he must back up other boys in their crimes, and even refuses to testify in their cases, regardless of what he knows. You know that here in our courthouse if a witness on the stand, when asked for certain evidence, deliberately refused to give it, he would be sent to jail for contempt of court. In our schools, a boy does not hesitate to refuse to give evidence in just this way. It is a condition that I understand has existed here for many years. Recently a boy went into a cloak room and stole some things. This boy here before you knows who stole them. I asked him who stole them. He refused to tell me. In the face of such impertinence and contempt of authority I sent him home to stay until he could make up his mind to tell me what I asked him to tell. The question before you is whether you will support the superintendent in his action or whether you will, without making it possible to settle the stealing case, take this boy back into the school."

For the first time the board realized the seriousness of the evil. Each member spoke out in strong support of the superintendent. The parents were informed that their boy would have to comply with the condition laid down by the superintendent, before he could be readmitted to the school. After the parents and the boy

had departed, the superintendent asked them to put into their minutes their decision in the form of a rule that would thereafter be authority for action of the superintendent in such cases. Without opposition, the board did this, somewhat in these words: *A pupil who refuses to give evidence when called upon to do so by the superintendent of schools shall be dismissed from school until such time as he shall be willing to testify.* There was no more trouble of this kind. In some cases boys who knew of certain offenses would go to those who had committed them and tell them that they must come and report on themselves, or that they would have to report on them, when called on. The decision of the board broke the backbone of opposition to authority in that city. It was well. A conspiracy to oppose authority in a school is good practice for such conspiracies in adult life to oppose the authority of the state. Children must learn not to shield evil-doers.

1. **Leaving the seat without permission.** Some hold that children should be free to leave their seats at any time for anything with the understanding that they are not to disturb others in doing so. That sounds fairly good just to hear it, but it is one of the most troublesome factors to manage, unless your enrollment is very small. It is well, generally speaking, to restrict such promiscuous flitting about the room, by use of the finger signals given in a previous chapter.

m. **Vandalism.** This refers to prowling about the schoolhouse when school is not in session, entering the house at night, stealing articles, damaging property and committing other similar depredations. This may be committed by students or by those not students. The laws of the state deal with such acts. Plan to have such perpetrators arrested in the act and dealt with by the courts.

n. **Disturbing public exercises.** When teachers have planned public exercises in recitations, music, plays and others of similar sort, such exercises are frequently given at night, as a convenient time for attendance by parents and citizens. In some communities there are "rowdy" young men who go to such gatherings, not to enjoy, but to disturb. Sometimes they are lively with drink. Two young women, in charge of a small rural village school, had prepared a Christmas program, with its tree and the presents. The exercises were held even in the little church. Two drunken "rowdies" came in in the midst of the program, brandishing their revolvers and took charge, driving everybody from the house. Nothing was done about it. Even the few men there fled in fear. Teachers, your state will protect you here, if you will arrange for it in advance. If in town, ask your mayor to give you a policeman to see that order is kept. If in the country, ask your sheriff to deputize a man to be present at your night program, with authority to prevent disorder and to arrest the disorderly. The law is on your side here. Get ready in advance to use it.

o. **Chewing gum.** This should not be permitted, upon the basis of good manners. Such offenses may be prevented by your teaching in advance what constitutes good manners and what constitutes breaches of good manners. Then, if a child persist in chewing gum in school, such punishment will have to be resorted to as will prevent it.

p. **Smoking.** While teachers may be unable to prevent this at the child's home, or even on the way to and from school, it is possible to prevent it on the school-grounds. It should be taboo on the school-grounds. If yours is a community in which no people smoke, why certainly you will not mention it as a thing to be for-

bidden. Your reasonable rules are always to cover just the offenses that occur at your school; not those offenses which may occur in some school a thousand miles from you. If smoking is a practice in your community, it is to be expected that boys will smoke, too. Now there is a tactful way to go about this, and there is a tactless way. It would be tactless for a teacher to say the first day of school, "There must be no smoking here. If so, I am going to whip the first one who does it." You may just say to the boys, if you know that smoking is an evil in that community, "In all well-managed schools smoking is not permitted on the school-grounds. I am wondering whether you boys may not be willing to relieve me of the necessity of making a rule like that. If all of you will just volunteer not to smoke or use tobacco in any form on these school premises, and if you would just do that yourselves, I would not think of making a rule to cover it. How many of you boys are willing to volunteer not to smoke or to use tobacco on these school premises? Hold up your hands." It is likely that all will agree. "Suppose, then, you write out a little slip, bearing these words: 'I agree not to smoke nor to use tobacco in any form on the school premises,' and sign your names to it. Hand that in and we shall just let that count instead of a rule."

Smoking is a problem of hygiene as well as of discipline. Re-read topic *u* of Chapter XIX.

q. Lying. This is an evil that has probably persisted throughout all human history. The Psalmist speaks of a child being born into the world *speaking lies*. Some children lie because of an imagination that makes the false appear real. Others lie because they do not know what in a given situation is the truth. Still others lie, because they do not have the vocabulary with which to tell the truth. Nevertheless, lying is rank immorality.

You deal here with one of the most fundamental evils in an early human life. This is no easy offense with which to deal.

The school exists as an agency of the state to help the children learn what is the truth, to see it, to recognize it, to esteem it, to love it, to seek it, to live it. The Son of Man speaks of the truth as the means by which one becomes *free*. So far as acquisition in education is concerned, truth, then, is the greatest goal for which one may seek. Let us, therefore, help the children learn truth, as a substitute for the apparent falseness in their early nature; to love it, and esteem it above all else. The truest martyrs of history are those who have dared and died for truth. To tell the truth, to act the truth, to live the truth,—what better ideal can any human being have? Instill that into the lives of your children. The approach to truth is a life-time task. So exercise patience with little ones in their perversions of it. Instead of scolding them for lying, give your approval to the truth. Referring again to little George Washington, he told the truth because he had been brought up by his parents to tell the truth. He was approved for truth-telling, instead of punished for lying. Truthfulness must be made attractive as a goal. The author is thoroughly convinced that parents and teachers are more responsible for children's lying than the children themselves. Still, when a child comes to you already a perfect organization of falsity, because of previous ill teaching and treatment by others, you cannot stand for deliberate lying. Take the children into your life and confidence and let them understand that you are going to treat them kindly, gently, patiently and sympathetically, and that they need never fear that you will not deal justly by them, if they will come forward and openly tell you the whole truth, without reservation.

Then, if a child does that, you will, by all means, not begin to scold him and try to make him feel that he is the worst human wretch in history. You can instead say to him or to her, "I am glad that you told me this and that I did not have to ask anyone else. I love you and I want to help you to make it right. I know from what you have told me that you are anxious to make this thing just as right as it can be. What do you think would be the right thing, the just thing, the fair and the honest thing, for you to do?" You will be surprised how often there will come right out of the child's own heart a suggestion of exactly the right thing to do. Then you can say, "I think that would be a proper way. Shall I go with you and help you make it right?" This human interest and friendship to a child shown by a teacher are rewards to truth. If the matter be that of an apology to another child who has been wronged, or the restitution of something that has been broken or stolen, the child feels willing to undertake it for the teacher will stand by and help.

It is a long way toward truth, when a child feels that *his word can be taken for truth*. It is a sure stimulus to lying when a child feels that no one believes anything that he says. Colvin¹ says that "That which fits best into experience, which most uniformly satisfies the intelligence, is the truth." Who knows that, in a little child's experience, what he has told and has appeared to us as false is not very real to him?" Bishop Denny of the Southern Methodist Church said one day before a congregation of ministers, "The truth is hard to tell. I've tried it." While he said it jocularly, there is much basis for reflection in that statement.

r. **Stealing.** As soon as a little child gets some degree of control of his little limbs, he begins to reach,

¹Colvin, S. S.: *The Learning Process*, p. 119, New York, 1911.

grasp and put into his mouth any small thing that comes within range of his attention and control. When the child grows larger, this tendency reaches out, other little worlds to explore and to conquer. In a few years, he is large enough to be in the father's orchard, where fruit is growing. He helps himself to the ripe, luscious fruit and there is no prohibition of it. A little later he has grown stronger. He sees over in the neighbor's orchard beautiful red apples. He is attracted by them immediately. He is big enough to climb over now. He appropriates some of his neighbor's apples. He has been in quest of food and has been satisfied. He is so proud of his experience that he comes home jubilant and tells his father and mother what fine apples he got over the fence. But, lo, another element enters the situation. Mother and father are shocked to death that their own little Jimmie has actually been *stealing apples*. The scene, which follows in scolding the little fellow is so severe that it is a real punishment; but the connection which he makes, however, is not between stealing apples and punishment, but between telling the truth and punishment. Instead of taking the child and showing him what things are proper for him to appropriate for his food and how to seek it, so as to respect the rights of private property, which by instincts he knows nothing about, so far as the other fellow is concerned, the case is managed so that the association in his mind connects punishment with truth-telling and not with taking other people's property. He has not yet been *taught* that taking the apples from his neighbor is wrong. The thing that to him has been punished, even if his parents did not so intend, was telling the truth about it. So, when he takes some more apples, he keeps quiet about it, and the opportunity for teaching real morality is lost forever. Not all such silly managing of

such cases is by parents; some of it is by teachers.

When children come to school, the right attitude toward private property has been already established, or it has not been. The teacher will need to do some constructive work in helping to build such an attitude of respect for other people's property, that children not yet trained in this matter will do the moral and right thing. On the other hand, if children, because of the bad training which they have had, are already thieves, although someone else may be to blame for that bad training, the children are already the sufferers therefor. If theft be committed, the teacher must enter into the life of the one who has committed the theft and try to teach the child what he may have never had the opportunity to learn before in the matter of other people's property. To be sure, the theft must be punished; but the teacher is not going to scold and abuse the child so as to lose all heart-touch for the eradication from that child's life of this evil practice.

s. **Sensationalism.** This refers to the doing of things in school that are exciting. It may be bringing into the room toads, lizards, live mice, little snakes, and turning them loose; it may be bringing certain chemicals that have a very bad odor. The latter is more serious than the former. It is not always necessary to prohibit the bringing of little animals into school, if the children will comply with certain regulations about it. One day a teacher noticed that the children were very excited about something. With a little investigation she found that a boy had brought a small terrapin in a shoe box. She asked the boy to bring it to her desk. He brought it up, expecting to get a punishment. On the other hand, she did not scold nor say a word in condemnation. She took the terrapin and departed from her regular program for a whole

period, teaching the children a great many things about terrapins and turtles. It was intensely interesting. When she was through her talk, she gave the terrapin back to the boy and said, "I am glad that you brought him to school. You were about not to let the rest of us see him. Suppose you put your box over there on the window till school is out; then, you can take it along with you." Then she said to the children, "Any time you find anything interesting like that, bring it right up here and let us all see it." Thus she turned what was about to appear as a breach of discipline into a means of discipline. Soon the other children were bringing various things, which enriched their nature study. Instead of the children's using these things as a means of disturbance, they used them for educational purposes. It is the *substitution* of a better purpose for the things.

In the case of the vile odors, it is not well to use corporal punishment for the first offense, nor any other very serious penalty. Appeal to the better nature of the children first. Try to locate the real offenders. If they can be found, have a very sincere, heart-searching conference with them, trying to bring out the facts first; then, discussing the matter upon the basis of conduct becoming gentlemen and ladies. "Are these things gentlemanly, or ladylike? Would you do such things in the home of ladies and gentlemen? Are your school mates to be treated as ladies and gentlemen? Do you consider yourselves gentlemen or ladies? In consequence of such ungentlemanly conduct, what is the right thing to do to square it up?" What you want to do is to break up the practice, and not just to get a chance to punish a child. If your conference seems to indicate that the children are willing to let it all be in the past, the teacher will be willing to suspend judg-

ment for the present. The teacher will let them know that a repetition will certainly bring punishment. If repeated, a penalty severe enough to put an end to the offense must follow.

t. **Disorderliness.** This term is here used to indicate a state of disorder in the schoolroom in which noise and disturbance are going on and in which it is difficult to locate a person who is guilty of anything particularly bad. In such a situation, the teacher sometimes stands helpless. A good way to get out of such a situation is to call the control signals, given in Chapter XVII, get the children to following you in harmony and uniformity, give them a song, or physical exercise, or a specific assignment of something to do. Then, if a child starts something disorderly, it will be easier to locate him and proceed to deal with him accordingly. Deal with him personally. "Are you going to stop this talking, or aren't you?" He sees that you are looking him straight in the eyes and mean what you say. He gets quiet and the work goes on smoothly.

u. **Cheating.** This usually refers in school to the copying, during examinations or recitations, from the papers of other pupils, copying from books, and otherwise getting help in dishonest ways and securing aid by methods not permitted. This is a serious offense. But let us begin at the beginning of it and build against it. The following methods are used to overcome cheating:

- 1) Not subjecting children to undue temptation, when they are young and before their sense of right and wrong has become strong, has not been given sufficient attention. If children sitting next to each other are given different exercises to perform or different problems to solve, they will have to depend upon themselves. In the meantime, instruction in the meaning

of rightness of self-dependence in all intellectual exercises may be built up into a principle of such strength as to enable children to withstand the temptation to cheat. Without announcing the purpose of so giving tests and the like, the teaching should avoid tempting small or even intermediate children to cheat.

2) Punishment. If a child begins to cheat, the first step is the private conference, setting forth the seriousness of cheating, appealing to the child's better nature and offering to help him overcome such a sin in letting him sit where temptation does not overcome him. Show him that you believe in him and trust him in the future. Lead him to feel that you mean it. Such private conferences, with you as a real friend to the pupil, will be sufficient to cure most cases of cheating. Punishment of ordinary sorts should not be given for the first offense. Let it be the remedy only for subsequent offenses.

In high school, the conference will also be used before punishment. The appeal, personally made, will be potent. For those cases in which the appeal to "honor" will not work, punishment of a sufficiently serious sort must follow to break it up in that pupil.

v. **Wilful disobedience and malicious mischief** are first-degree calls for punishment. Nevertheless, a kindly personal conference will sometimes win even a pupil guilty of that sort of thing and put an end to the misconduct. If it does not, children must be taught by sufficiently severe punishment that such conduct must be ended. If it be a large boy, he may be given a choice between conforming to school discipline and being dismissed from school. Sometimes the father of such a boy will settle it satisfactorily for you.

w. **Tale-bearing.** Some pupils seem to have the greatest satisfaction in making up and telling perfectly

false things about others. This, unless checked, may lead to great seriousness. Some such children have never had home opportunities to learn better. Take the case as an individual one; try to trace it back to the beginning, endeavor to show the offender how serious such conduct is; strive to win the child back to decent conduct. Personal conference, before punishment, is the procedure. If bad enough to come to your attention at all, it will probably be so bad that effective punishment is needed. Be sure that the punishment, however, is associated with tale-bearing and with nothing else.

x. Stubbornness, viciousness, sensitiveness, haughtiness.

The *stubborn* pupil is headstrong and unruly. It often takes rather serious punishment to get such a pupil to recognize authority and to comply with rules and regulations. Be careful not to mistake deafness for stubbornness.

The *vicious* child does things just for meanness. He seems to take the greatest delight in being mean. He bullies small children. If they resist, he hurts them. He takes pleasure in breaking things. He breaks window lights. He will throw a roll of toilet paper into a room where a lady is teaching; so on.

Both stubborn and vicious pupils must be dealt with firmly. If neither kindness nor punishment may lead them to recognize authority, submit to discipline, and deport themselves in decency, when both parents and teachers coöperate in the effort, such children, if small enough, should be sent to a reformatory; if they are large, they must be expelled. They, too, teach others. It is better that they be sacrificed than that forty other children shall be taught by them also to become stubborn and vicious.

The *sensitive* child is to be pitied. A girl in third year high school just suffered untold misery, although she was about the most brilliant girl in the class. All the time she felt that the other children were thinking of her adversely, that they talked about her behind her back, that they cast sly glances at each other when she was called on to recite. Talking with such a pupil and trying to persuade him or her that the fears are groundless does little good. This case was handled successfully, when the teacher took a few of the other more dependable girls into her confidence and suggested that they even go out of their way to cultivate this sensitive girl, inviting her to join them in their games and the like. If sensitiveness take the form of a "chip on the shoulder," getting angry at nothing, giving away unduly to temper, the teacher may, in that case, come to the point of telling such a pupil privately, but in no uncertain words, of his or her sensitiveness, and of letting him or her know that the school, the teacher and the pupils will not tolerate such extremes of sensitiveness. Such a pupil must be led to understand that self-control of a very vigorous sort is the most important lesson needed immediately to be learned.

The *haughty* child thinks he or she is better than other children, or comes of a better family, or is above the necessity of compliance with school discipline. The sad thing about such a child sometimes is that the parents, living under a false conception of aristocratic exclusiveness, are to blame. This child cannot be permitted to assume superior rights and privileges in the school, nevertheless. Children, having this or any other serious fault, must be made conscious of it, and must be led, if possible, to see the need for its elimination. If a child can be led to see a defect of his character as a defect, there is hope that by your help it may be over-

come. If not, such a fault must be associated with punishment, both for his good and for the good of others.

y. **Calling the teacher names.** This will not usually happen in schoolroom. Down on the street a group of boys will get together and thoughtlessly call the teacher names that indicate to the people a high degree of disrespect. Once a teacher by the name of Miss Robinson (case real, but name fictitious) was disrespectfully treated by some boys, the ring-leader being a big boy who had behaved so badly in school already that the limit had been reached. When they would see her coming near the postoffice, they would begin, "Rah, rah, rah, rah, rah, Robin." That to her was the limit. She had in school used the private appeal, the personal conference with the ring-leader of these boys, in the matter of other offenses. He seemed irredeemable. His example to the other boys was very bad. She informed the superintendent that the limit had been reached. He was disposed to treat the matter lightly. She said, "Well, if that boy comes back to my room, you may get another teacher." So he informed the boy that he would have to stop school. The boy liked that; but he continued after that to annoy this teacher. She reported the annoyance to a policeman, who informed the boy that if the offense were repeated he would be arrested. The annoyance was thus discontinued.

z. **Obscenity and indecency.** These are offenses so vile that they cannot be endured at all. In most well-regulated homes children are likely to have received such moral training that such offenses will not occur. The former refers to the writing of notes, the using of language, and the showing of pictures which involve the vulgar. It frequently takes the form of writing on the school building or drawing pictures in public places.

This offense is difficult to locate. The teacher will prevent much of it, if there are among her pupils filthy-minded children, by her presence with the children on the grounds at recess, and by keeping their interest in athletics and other games as high as possible. This again is the principle of *substitution*. *Substitute* a better thing as the object of their thinking. If the offense occurs, the penalty should be severe. If the parents are notified, they will usually take care of the punishment for you. The same thing may be said of indecency, which refers to the indecent exposure of the person by children large enough to know better. Many things may be overlooked in a very small child, until you can teach him better. But indecencies by children who do know better should be punished severely. It sometimes happens that a large boy has lived in such filthy and vulgar surroundings that they have become a part of his life, and that he is just too indecent to remain with decent people. In that case, the school board should be asked to dismiss him permanently from school. It is better that one such boy be sacrificed than that the whole school should be corrupted by his immoral influence.

aa. **Profanity.** This is an offense that is very infectious. Children “catch” it easily from one another. A boy who “curses” is looked upon as one of importance. Those who use profanity regard themselves as having accomplished a great victory, when they succeed in inducing another boy to begin the use of profane language. They are proud of it. The teacher’s task here is three-fold:

- 1) She must, in her devotional or other general exercises in which she attempts to teach certain moral facts and principles, give the children the meaning of profanity and enjoin abstinence from it. She must appeal

for such self-control and decent use of language as to develop a desire for a better sort of speech than that of profanity. Out of respect for their school, for their schoolmates, for their mothers, for their teacher, the children should decide that never one word of profanity should escape their lips. So much for the teaching side.

2) In the games, especially the athletic games, a user of profanity cannot have the privilege of playing until he shall have developed such self-control as not to use profane language. This is very potent. Really live boys do not want to give up their privilege of playing, even for the "privilege" of profanity, which may already have a strong hold on them. A boy with too little self-control to keep from "cursing" is not a good one to have on a team.

3) If a child persistently uses profanity, the coöperation of his parents should be sought. If between the teacher and parents, by means of personal conferences and severe punishments, the habit cannot be broken, the child should not be permitted to associate with other children, even if it finally comes to expulsion from school.

ab. **Strikes.** The teacher should try, by tactful dealings and congenial treatment of children, not to provoke strikes. This offense is one when the pupils *en masse*, either all or a group, decide to take a common action. It may be to refuse to comply with a given school regulation. It may be to take into their own hands the punishment of an individual. It may be to leave school for a day. It may be in protest against the presence in the school of an immoral pupil. It may be in protest against the treatment of their teacher by the school board. It may be the refusal of the group to attend school, as long as a certain teacher or officer is in school. In a certain city, the superintendent had

become a *persona non grata* to the high school students. He was re-elected. Immediately the whole high school went on strike and remained out of school until the superintendent announced that he would not accept the position again. In another case, the principal of the school was informed one morning that all the boys in her room (two upper grades of a junior high school) had decided to quit school. "Why are you going to do that?" she asked. The spokesman said, "There is a boy in our room who is immoral and we are not going to associate with him. We cannot tell you the particulars. It is too bad to talk to a lady about. We are not going to stand for it, and will not stay if he does."

There are four ways in which a teacher may deal with a strike:

- 1) Say nothing about such a possibility. Try to keep the idea from their minds. They may never think of a thing like that.

- 2) Try to deal with children justly, fairly, impartially, tactfully, and firmly. You are the school board's disciplinarian in that school.

- 3) In case a group request is made, give it careful consideration. There may be real reason back of it. If there is, grant the request. If you cannot grant it, you may be able to suggest a substitute for it which will accord more nearly with your plans, or at least give your reasons why a request would not meet with the approval of the board.

- 4) In case they disregard your advice and take the law in their own hands, topic *h*, in this division above, suggests a method of dealing with it.

ac. **Scuffling.** It is not so bad to scuffle out of doors. If pupils scuffle indoors, they are likely to damage desks or other school furniture. Prohibit scuffling indoors. If not too rough, it may be permitted out of doors.

In this connection it may be suggested that some boys need to be taught how to sit down at a desk. They swagger along and almost fall into their seats. This frequently breaks the castings of the desks. Prevent this in advance by teaching them how to sit down. If they continue their carelessness and cause damage to the desks, they should be required to pay for it.

ad. **Bringing weapons and the like to school.** To start at the lowest, children should be prohibited from bringing firecrackers and other explosives. Shooting of them on the school grounds endangers the eyes of the pupils, and also creates fire possibilities. The bringing of firearms, knucks, and the like, becomes a danger of serious possibilities.

As to the fire crackers, torpedoes, and so forth, let the teacher explain carefully, just before Christmas, or before any other occasion in which such things are much used, the dangers involved and the reasons for not permitting such things to be brought to school. In fact, you may handle your explanation so carefully that you may get all your children to volunteer not to bring them to school, but to keep them at home to be used at the proper time. In this connection, the teacher has an opportunity to teach children the wrongness of throwing explosives under the feet of animals or people.

As to firearms, nothing needs to be said in advance. The state law takes care of it. If, however, a pupil brings a pistol to school, it must be taken by the teacher. It may be turned over to the child's parents, if they be people who are interested in the welfare of their children. It may be that the parents will take care of the case entirely for you. If not, it may be turned over to the school board or school committee, and the board may be asked to consider the dismissal of that child from school. Certainly a dangerous child cannot be

kept in school. If the child is not a dangerous one, but just thoughtless in that particular instance, it would be injustice to expel him from school.

ae. **Dropping books.** This does not refer to the accidental dropping of books and other utensils, which cannot be avoided. Everyone is familiar with the boy who watches his chance and deliberately drops his book just for the noise it will make. Some boys may be cured of this by one good personal talk by the teacher, who shows the boy how that practice interferes with the work of the room. If he persists in the offense, he must be punished severely enough to get him to discontinue. The author is usually opposed to "satiation" as a punishment, which means letting or requiring the offender to engage in the offense when no other children are there, until he is much more than satisfied with it. One teacher cured a persistent offender of this kind, requiring him to take something else, not a book, and drop it one hundred times, each time picking it up and dropping it again. It became very tiresome. He never offended in this again. In this case "satiation" seemed justified.

af. **Pilfering.** This is a good stepping-stone to thieving. Children, dismissed for recess or to go home in the afternoon, should not be permitted to re-enter the schoolroom, without the teacher's special permission, until time for the others to re-enter. This permission should not be given, unless the teacher finds a very urgent reason. In such a situation, it is easy for a child to engage in pilfering around among the things belonging to the teacher and to the other children.

ag. **Games needing to be prohibited.** The following games have certain evils attendant upon them in school and should not be permitted.

1) *Snowballing.* In view of the temptation of a large

boy to hurt girls and small boys, snow-balling them, this practice should be prohibited on the school grounds and on the way home in the afternoon. On the school ground, however, if you have plenty of space, it would not be amiss for all the children who want to play to divide up into sides, stretch two ropes or lay off two lines, 60 feet apart, and let the two sides snowball each other from that distance. There should not be so many on each side that there would not be dodging room. One group could play a few minutes, then another group.

2) *Crack-whip or pop-whip, wrestling, foot-and-a-half.* All of these involve such physical dangers that even large children may be badly hurt in playing them. It is better to prohibit these and use games which do not involve such dangers.

3) *Boxing.* The same may be said of this that was said of the rough games mentioned in the preceding paragraph. In addition, boxing sometimes leads into actual fighting. Prohibit it.

4) *Indoor running.* This may result in damage to the furniture. It causes great noise and disturbance. It is troublesome for the most part only on rainy days, when the children cannot get out to play.

On days of bad weather, the recesses may be shortened. From your book of games you will find many suitable for indoor playing that involve no running, or violence to other children, or likelihood of damage to furniture. Use those games.

5) *Playing marbles for "keeps."* This is a form of gambling in which children engage in childhood unless they may be taught better and the game prohibited. The author found a boy in his school a few years ago who was expert in winning the other boys' marbles. According to the rules, each boy must put into the ring

so many marbles, and he would have all which he was able to shoot out of the ring. This particular boy was so expert that he would soon win all the other boys' marbles. Then he would sell them back for money. Though the marbles were very cheap, he was getting about fifty cents a day in this way. In terms of his social group, he was a professional gambler already.

The parents of the community think very little of the possibility of such a game. The author has found that, when this evil is called to the attention of parents, they usually put a stop to it at home as well as at school.

Just before marble time in the spring, it is well for the teacher to anticipate this evil. She can tell the children the evil of the game, and ask them if they will not volunteer to steer clear of this gambling game. As in other offenses, it may be necessary to punish some for persistent violation; most may be reached by proper appeal.

ah. **Writing notes by the teacher to parents.** If a child is giving trouble in school, or is deliberately neglecting his work, the parents should be notified. This information cannot best be given to parents at first through a note. There are many little things that cannot be said in a note, which are perfectly clear if said face to face. The beginning teacher is advised to go to parents in a congenial way, talk to them about other things first, and after a basis of congeniality is established, tell them of the conduct of their child, rather than write them about it. After the parents come to know you, a simple, carefully written note, containing no threats, will be sufficient.

There is another kind of note. Maybe the parent writes the teacher a note and "blesses her out," or sends her some word that is very insulting. The first temptation is to sit down and write an answer in kind.

If you feel that way, and feel that you will die unless you write such a note, be sure to write it and—then put it into the wastebasket. If you do not have a wastebasket, take it home, lay it on your dresser till next morning, and you will feel like putting it into the stove. Such notes never do any good. They often do much harm. Better not write them.

6. Finally, there is a way to the heart of offenders. This chapter on discipline has been devoted wholly to the consideration of punishments. Again, punishments are the exceptional happenings of the school. A teacher may go through a whole session without having to administer any serious punishments. It does not seem well to close this chapter without presenting a mode of discipline to which reference^d has already been made occasionally in this chapter. This is the control of the children through the *avenue of the heart*. It is the heart touch between teacher and pupils. It is that which gives a reward to teaching that can never be computed in material values. The settlements of cases by this method will stand out in the years to come as “pleasant places” in past experience. Sometimes, it is the work of prevention; again it is the act of punishment. In each instance, it leaves between the teacher and the pupil a deeper affection, a greater respect for each other, a profound influence for the better in the case of the pupil, and frequently lifelong friendship between the teacher and pupil. It is the procedure that appeals to the fundamental goodness of an individual. It may be best explained by citing specific instances.

a. There was a boy, sixteen years old, in the sixth grade. He was a sullen, stubborn, disrespectful, disobedient, impertinent boy. His teacher had talked with him several times; she had punished him for his conduct; she had taken up his case with his parents, who

also had punished him for his school conduct. No change seemed possible in him. In that school the practice of punishment was "Classroom teacher to punish for classroom offenses." At last the teacher saw nothing else that she could do. She detained him one day and sent for the principal. The latter came, already knowing about the boy's conduct; the teacher went over the case in a kindly way, and said, "I shall have to turn the case over to you." The principal sat down and began to talk to the boy. He said something like the following: "Here is your teacher, a good little woman, of kind nature, and of loving disposition. She is small of body. She is here to help you children. She never tries to bluff or bulldoze any of you. The sixth grade is naturally a hard grade to discipline. She will have a hard time of it in any way. Here you are, a large boy, the largest boy in the room. I take it, you regard yourself as a gentleman. As a gentleman, it seems to me that you ought to show respect to a lady. Instead of giving her trouble yourself, you ought to be helping her maintain discipline in this room. Do you think you have treated her right? Have you treated her as a gentleman would treat a lady? Would you be willing to have any boy treat your mother as you have treated your teacher? I am not here to tell you what you ought to do. But it seems to me that the principles of a gentleman ought to tell you what to do." By that time the boy was crying as if his heart would break. As soon as he got control of himself, he said, "I never knew before that I was so mean. I am so sorry that I have acted so mean and, if she will forgive me, I'll try to act the gentleman after this, and quit my meanness." The experience proved to be for the child a real conversion from his evil ways of the past. That boy gave no more trouble the whole session. It means so

much actually to rescue a child from his downward way to a life of decent living.

Three other cases of similar sort follow:

b. It was a small town high school. In the middle of the year there entered a boy about fifteen years of age. In a day or two a gentleman in the town asked the principal if this boy had entered school, and said, "You will have trouble with that boy. Why, that boy has been expelled from five schools." Instead of becoming prejudiced against the boy, it intensified the principal's interest in him. The boy lived, then, two miles from town. Soon he was asked whether he ever went hunting. He said he went very often. The principal asked him if he might go with him sometime. Immediately he said, "Yes, I would like for you to go. How about Saturday? If you will go, I will come for you." It was arranged. So early Saturday morning, just as day was breaking, the boy rapped on the door and was ready to start. Several little things like that brought the principal and the boy close together. What was the result? Not once did the boy violate a school rule sufficiently to be noticed. Once he came after school and said, "I talked once to-day. I did not mean to do so. Shall I stay in for it?" In the following summer he became ill and continued ill for several months. At last it was seen that he would not recover. In his last days, in directing his mother in making arrangements for the last service that can be performed for any human being, he told her that he wanted his teacher to be one of his pall-bearers. The teacher's experience in rescuing that boy from bad behavior in school stands out as one of the bright spots back there, in the days when he was a beginning teacher. There is no sort of discipline that transcends the heart-touch between pupil and teacher. In no case here was any sort of punish-

ment involved at all. You, as a beginning teacher, are advised to seek early “the way to the heart of the pupil.”

c. One day a superintendent of schools sat in his office. A young man, eighteen years of age, but only in the eighth grade, came down by the door as if going away. This was an ambitious boy, but his previous educational opportunities had been meager. Something appeared to be wrong with him. The following took place:

Superintendent: “Where are you going?”

Marvin: “I am going home.”

Superintendent: “Why are you going home?”

Marvin: “Miss F—— slapped me.”

Superintendent: “What did she slap you for?”

Marvin: “There was something rather funny that happened in class; I laughed and she got mad, drew back and slapped me. I got my hat and walked out.”

Superintendent: “What are you going to do?”

Marvin: “I am going home and I am not coming back any more. Before I will submit to such treatment as that, I’ll let education go.”

Superintendent: “I think I can understand just how you feel now. Still, your father is very anxious for you to get a high school education and then to go to college. I think he would be deeply grieved, if he thought that all his hopes for you were destroyed in one day. As I understand, your teacher slapped you; you got mad and walked out, and are now planning to go home. If I were in your place, I think that I should not act too hastily about this. You might regret it sometime. I believe, if I were in your place I would just go right back to the room, stand up and say, ‘Miss F——, I am sorry that I left your room as I did a little

while ago. I have come back and I wish to apologize for doing so.' ”

Marvin: “Well, I think that she ought to do some apologizing, too. She got mad and had no right to draw back and hit me as she did.”

Marvin was right. If a teacher ever treats a child wrongly, that teacher, if he or she ever recognize the wrong, should certainly apologize to the child. Right and justice are right and justice on both sides.

Superintendent: “Well, suppose we do not make too much point of that. You see, your education is at stake. While I do not know how wrong the teacher may have been, let us leave that to her. If she feels that she has done you a wrong, she will probably make amends for it. On the other hand, you are a *gentleman*. I do not know whether a gentleman ought to demand an apology from a lady. If it comes, it ought to come freely. But you can go back to her room, and stand up as a man and as a gentleman before your class, and tell your teacher that you have come as a gentleman to apologize for leaving her room as you did. Say nothing about what she did. You are responsible for your own conduct.”

Marvin: “Well, I am willing to do as you say. I will tell her that I will apologize as a gentleman. I will say nothing about what I think she ought to do; but I still feel that she ought to apologize to me.”

He went up and made his apology, which was accepted. The event passed. Marvin is now a successful superintendent of schools in a large and important southern county. Here no punishment was involved of an unpleasant sort. It was merely an appeal to the boy's better self to do his duty. He did it.

d. Here is a case that involved a very serious punishment inflicted on a boy. He was seventeen years old

and only in the first year of high school. He and his brothers had for years given trouble in the school. One day, when it became necessary to punish one of his brothers, he rebelled and not only used very abusive language in the presence of the other children and the teachers, but even threatened to take a chair to the superintendent. This was the worst conduct likely ever to be seen in any pupil. As soon as the children were marched in, he was called to the office and told: "Your conduct has been very bad; but you are mad now. Go to your classroom. School will close in an hour and a half. Come back then and we shall have a settlement after you have cooled down." At the close of school the following took place:

Superintendent: "Harold, your conduct today is the worst I have ever seen in any boy. You are seventeen years old. You are as large as I am. If you were a small boy, you would be punished and your case would be disposed of in just one way. As you are really a grown boy, I am going to give you your choice between taking the punishment which we should ordinarily give a small boy, and dismissal from school. If you go away from school, it means that your school days are over and all chance for further education will probably be gone forever. Furthermore, all down the coming days of your life, people who know you now will be saying, 'He was expelled from school.' On the other hand, if you decide that you would rather submit to corporal punishment, you will have to decide to *take* it of your own accord. I shall not have a scuffle with you to force you to take it. Furthermore, if you decide to take it, it will not be a light punishment. It will probably be as severe as any you have ever had. Here is your situation. What do you want to do?"

Harold: "I do not know which I had rather do."

Superintendent (pulling his watch from his pocket): "I give you three minutes to decide. At the end of that time if you are unable to decide, it will all be up. You will go home, not to return. That will end it."

Harold, at the end of two minutes: "I will take the whipping."

In view of the very bad record of this boy in previous years, there were called to the office one of the teachers, as witness, and a half-dozen of the boy's classmates. Thus the punishment was administered, and a severe one.

From that time on, Harold was a changed boy. He submitted readily to all subsequent school requirements, without resistance. He continued in school two or three years more, but was never troublesome again. He often told others that this was the turning point in his life. Thirteen years later, the superintendent, then a college professor, re-visited the town on invitation to make the high school commencement address. When the professor was driven up in a car from the station, this boy, now a successful business man and head of a family, was standing out on the sidewalk. Immediately the latter rushed out to the car, grasped the hand of the one who had whipped him, and said, "Welcome home again. You are the man who gave me the whipping that made a man out of me. I have been thankful for it a thousand times. That was the turning point in my life, and I owe much to you for it. I am so glad to see you." There come times when you have to do the best you can and the best you know, and trust that it will be right in the future. When duty faces one, even if its performance is very unpleasant, one must not shrink from it.

Seek, win, yea, fight your way into the *hearts* of your children. Out of their hearts are the issues of their lives. Here is the solution of your discipline troubles.

REFERENCES FOR FURTHER READING

(See the list of references at close of last chapter.)

CLASS PROBLEMS

1. What is punishment?
2. Just what do you understand to be its purpose?
3. How does the personal purpose differ from the social purpose?
4. Take the "undesirable punishments" listed and discussed, one at a time; criticize the discussion as to whether the punishment in question in each case is *undesirable*.
5. What is nagging? Scolding? How avoid them?
6. Are there doubtful punishments? If so, which? Why for each punishment mentioned?
7. Resolved, "That corporal punishment should be abolished in every state." On which side would you debate? What points would you make? What would you use as supports for each point?
8. Make a list of all the punishments which are within the power of the teacher. Which are only within the power of the school board?
9. Are there *proper* punishments? Which? Why?
10. What are characteristics of proper punishment?
11. Criticize each method suggested for dealing with offenders.
12. What school offenses do you know which are not mentioned in the author's list? Which mentioned here are not troublesome?
13. Criticize the method of disposing of the case of group truancy.
14. Which of these offenses give much trouble in the school with which you are familiar? How can they be broken up, considering one of them at a time?
15. Read three times, slowly, the little poem, "I Shot an Arrow in the Air." What connection does the last stanza of the poem have with school discipline?
16. If you were called on to read a paper at the Teachers' Institute on the following topics, what points would you make in each topic?
The extent to which teachers should use punishment;
The principle of *substitution* in school discipline;
Punishments to use in school;

How to effect discipline without having to resort to severe penalties.

17. Write out the hardest question that you can on school discipline. Ask three experienced teachers for an answer to your question.
18. Ask your teacher-friends for discipline devices which they have used successfully. Keep a list of them. Use those which appeal to the better nature of the children. Try to avoid that which stirs up within the children "the evil spirit" of rebellion and antagonism.
19. Pass judgment on the cases given by the author, under "Finally," having reference to heart-touch solutions of disciplinary problems.

CHAPTER XXII

"CARRYING ON" THE SCHOOL—1

Regularity and Punctuality of Attendance

1. **The meaning of terms.** When one uses the term "school attendance," one refers to the children's actual presence at the school. "Regularity" refers to the children's presence at school every day. Few children are ever at school every day of their school lives, or even of the school year, because of illness, weather and other causes worthy and unworthy. "Regularity" is then a relative term, as very few children are absolutely "regular" in their attendance at school. "Punctuality" refers to the promptness with which children reach school in time to begin the established daily program. It is the fact of "being on time."

2. **The value of regularity and punctuality in school attendance.** In the elementary school children are forming specific habits which will for the most part go with them through life. It is important that these habits be desirable. There are men who have been connected with the same places of business for more than a quarter of a century and have never been absent or tardy a single time in all those years. On the other hand, there are many other men who may or may not appear at an appointed time, and who seldom, if ever, meet an engagement on time. Such men seem incapable of appreciating the value of the time of other people. There was a meeting at which several men were to make twenty-minute speeches. One man was to make

the opening speech, somewhat as a standpoint for the other speeches. He came in one hour late. There had been no reasonable excuse for his lateness; he had merely stayed at the hotel, talking to his friends. He seemed not to appreciate the fact that his one hour's tardiness at this meeting of a thousand people meant the actual loss of a thousand hours of good time, which would never come again. If one is applying for a position and pays no attention to the exact time of the appointment for the interview, he will never get the position. Without regularity and punctuality in vocations one may never hope to rise to any large degree of success. Without them in school attendance, there is likelihood that the children so losing will become discouraged, fall behind, begin to fail of promotion, and sooner or later drop out of school, thus ending their opportunities for all the values that are available at the school.

3. What causes absences from school?

a. **Necessity for work at home.** Some children are members of unfortunate families, which seem all the time to have their "noses to the grindstone," and which have very serious vocational difficulties. In other families the father has died, leaving the mother and children in embarrassing financial circumstances. The work of these children adds enough to the family income for the whole family just to live. In states not having enforced compulsory education, this usually passes as a legitimate excuse for the children's not attending school. In states having enforced compulsory education, it adds to the difficulty of enforcing law. In any of these cases, while the family may be made more comfortable for the time being, yet the rights of the children are being denied, and in the long run it is the children who must suffer for having their educational rights denied and their opportunities thwarted.

Manage this tactfully, but try to enable the children to get their rights.

b. Neighborhood disagreements. There have been cases in which certain families had grievances against other families. If the former sent their children to school, the latter would not, to keep the children from associating at school. In one neighborhood a family had about one-sixteenth negro blood. Under the law the children from this family had the right to attend school for white people. When the children from this family appeared and were enrolled, the parents of the other children took their children home and thus broke up the school for that year. It happens that there has been a quarrel between two families. The children from those families have been instructed that they must not speak to, nor have anything to do with, each other. In spite of this, trouble sometimes occurs between the children from these two families, who accuse each other. If one side is clearly to blame, and if the teacher undertakes to punish the children who are to blame, the parents will either take the children from school or make it very unpleasant for the teacher. Such is a very ticklish case in which a teacher sometimes has to intervene. It is well for the teacher to find out, as early as possible, whether there are such neighborhood quarrels, and, if so, to try to steer clear of them, not taking sides in any way and in every legitimate way trying to ignore them. While parents thus quarrel, children suffer in not realizing their educational rights.

c. Parents' lack of appreciation of the value of education, and of the time needed to acquire it. Many parents, having little education themselves, seem to see no loss in a child's entering school a week late, or in losing two days a week, or in getting to school late in the morning. In rural communities, the children from

some families come to school a month or so after school opens, having stayed out to work on the farm; then, in spring they leave a month or more before school closes, to work on the farm. While this is a cause of absence from school, childhood will continue to be the sufferer.

d. The children's dislike of school or of the teacher. Some children have a very strong dislike for school or for certain teachers. The parents let their children have their own way and remain away from school. These children regret in future years having been permitted to have their own way in this matter. A member of a school board one day said to the author, "I am sixty years of age. For thirty years I have been mad with my father." "What about?" he was asked. "Well," said he, "when I was about thirteen years of age, I wanted to stop school and my father let me. If he had taken a brush to me and *compelled* me to continue in school, as he should, to-day I might have been of some value to the world. To my dying day I shall blame my father for letting me have my own way and stop school."

e. Ill health. Because of poor health many children have to lose a day, or a week, or a month, or even a year occasionally. The health trouble may be due to the results of previous illness or to constitutional causes. At any rate, it is unfortunate, and the child is the sufferer, both physically and educationally.

f. Lack of clothing or books. There is a way, probably in every community, for the alleviation of this cause, if it can become known. People who suffer from this cause do not want it to become known. The pride of the family is very keen. The parents do not want their children to go out in public, unless they may be as well dressed as the children from certain other families. The children do not start to school at the be-

ginning of the session because they do not yet have new shoes, and so forth. Again, they do not come at first because they do not have the books for the grades, and the father will not get his check for three weeks yet. Again, *childhood is the sufferer*.

The foregoing are typical causes. There are others. Whatever the cause of a child's late entrance at school, or of his irregular attendance, no one else but the child will be the individual sufferer in the years to come. Someone needs to become interested in his case *now* and help him realize his educational rights at a time when their realization will mean something for him.

4. What causes tardiness?

a. **Home work.** Two brothers were invariably late at school. Their teacher investigated the cause and found that their having so many chores to do at home prevented their starting to school until ten minutes before opening. They would run a good portion of the way, but had not quite enough time to make the distance from home to school.

b. **Distance.** This is not always a serious cause. Many times those children who live a long distance from school will be tardy less frequently than those who live near. It needs to be given consideration, if it really is a cause, and some allowance made for it.

c. **Playing along the way.** Children sometimes have been started by their mothers from home in sufficient time to reach the school before its opening, and have lost time along the way. This is a case in which the children themselves are responsible and must be so held.

d. **Accidents.** The street car or the automobile or other vehicle of travel may suffer an accident and thus become a cause of tardiness for the children. While this should not be a cause in which the children should be punished for tardiness, yet, in case of a contest in-

volving perfect attendance, it should count against the record. A man, living in New York and working at a certain place of business, was never late once in forty years, regardless of snows, car break-downs, or anything else. He always allowed himself sufficient time so that, if anything occurred, he could walk and still be on time.

5. What the teacher can do to reduce the number of absences and tardies.

a. **Visit the parents.** A conference at the homes of the children with their parents will be of value in getting the children into school at the beginning. It will sometimes serve to get the children to attending school regularly and on time. Parents, who have been shown some courtesy and consideration by the teacher, will coöperate with her in her plans, with more willingness than if they never see the teacher.

b. **Notes.** A child had been absent several times. The teacher wrote a note: "We miss William when he is absent. We like him and are sorry for him to miss a single day. He has already been absent five times this month. If he continues to miss so frequently, it may not be possible for him to be promoted at the end of the session. If he can come back right away, I will do my best for him. Otherwise, I am sure you would not blame me, if he should be unable to make his grade." William was on hand next morning, and he was not absent again.

c. **Excuses.** In many schools children who are absent are required to bring written excuses the next day on which they return. If they are tardy, because of conditions at home, they must bring that very day a written excuse for tardiness. The teacher may require this. In case some parents cannot write, the excuses may be written by some other person who is

designated by the parents. The teacher needs to watch this, that children may not write their own excuses and “forge the names” of their parents to them. It is well to keep all excuses for some time. One teacher who had the custom of keeping the notes brought by the children, noticed that a boy had been absent thirteen times. She took the notes brought by this boy and went one afternoon to see his father. The following took place:

Teacher: “I wish to confer with you a little about Avery’s absences. I am hoping that we can coöperate to the end that he will be absent much less frequently. At the present rate, he is going to fail in his grade, if he cannot come more regularly.”

Father: “I don’t know what you mean. I have not kept him home but once this session.”

Teacher: “Well, he has been absent thirteen times in the last five weeks and has brought written excuses, signed by you each time.”

Father: “Thirteen excuses, signed by me! I have given him only one. Surely you don’t mean it.”

Teacher (drawing the notes from her handbag): “Here they are. See for yourself.”

Father: “Avery signing my name to notes! Who would have thought it? Let me keep these notes. Avery and his father are going to have a settlement. Furthermore, he will be at school hereafter every day.”

d. **Contests.** Some sort of group rivalry may be used to stimulate attendance. It may be that the room that has the fewest absences or tardies (counting two tardies as equal to one absence), may have the privilege of marching at the head of the line, or may be excused on Friday afternoon one half-hour earlier. Such a privilege in a building is of some value in reducing absences and tardies. The teacher may put all the children in the room to looking after each other,

with a view to winning and holding the privilege.

e. **Closing the door at opening.** This is to close and lock the door at opening time to those who come later. This is a bad practice. It enables the children who do not care for school to tarry along the way, to get to school late, and thus not to go to school that day. In homes in which parents are lax, the children will go back home. In others, they will play around all day and go home at the time in the afternoon when other children get home.

f. **Interesting opening exercises.** At another place, opening exercises will be discussed as to their content and methods. Here let it be said that, if the teacher gives really serious thought to the opening exercises to make them instructive and interesting, they will help much to get the children there on time. This will especially be true, *if the children themselves may participate in these exercises*. Some teachers so plan these exercises that the children do almost all the parts of the opening.

g. **Exhibiting the children.** One teacher said every Friday afternoon, "First, let all the children who have been *neither absent nor tardy* thus far this session come and stand by me at the front; second, let all those who *have not been absent nor tardy this month*, but who have been absent or tardy this session, stand here just in front of the rest of us; third, let those who have been neither absent nor tardy this week stand at their seats; and fourth, let all at their seats who will try to be *neither absent nor tardy* next week also stand at their seats." This is a very potent reminder of proper attendance at school.

h. **Perfect attendance certificates.** One year the author offered in a given school, having an enrollment of five hundred, to give "perfect attendance certifi-

cates” to all children who should be for the entire session *neither absent nor tardy*. No cause for absence or tardiness was excused in working for these certificates. Even illness counted against the record, so far as this immaterial prize was concerned. If the attendance was to be *perfect*, there could not be excused a single absence or tardiness for any cause. At the end of the year there were eighteen such pupils with perfect attendance records. Their certificates were delivered at commencement by a prominent man of the community. Those eighteen pupils came and stood at the front. This man made them a nice speech, commending them for their record and showing the values of perfect attendance. The whole school was present, with the fathers and mothers. Next year the same reward was offered. The number that year rose to fifty-five; the third year to seventy-eight.

i. **Ideals of attendance.** It is possible to erect ideals of perfect attendance in the minds of the children so that these ideals almost overcome all the causes of both irregularity and unpunctuality. In a third grade there had been no tardiness for several months, and no absence not properly excused. One morning a child came in a little late. When the child found that she was late and that she had broken the record of the room, she just cried. A fourth year class in high school had a fine attendance record. Of the boys not one had been absent or tardy for five months. These big boys appreciated their record. One day one of the boys, nineteen years old, was not feeling well; really, he was not well enough to come to school, but he came. Sometimes during the day it was necessary for him to lay his head over on the desk. Thus he stayed through the day. All of the boys of the class went through the whole year

with a perfect attendance record, proud of their accomplishment.

j. Dealing with the specific causes of absence and tardiness. The foregoing suggestions will take care of a large part of the absences and tardies. Still, the following suggestions are given for the more individual cases to be dealt with. When children have to work at home and are not able to come to school, confer with the parents and urge upon them the importance of education. In hard cases the circumstances may be reported to the superintendent or to the board. Steer clear of neighborhood quarrels. If injustice is being done children because of these quarrels, it would be well to ask the principal or the superintendent or the school board to take charge of it and to try to get the children in school. In other cases, be a friend to the parents and try to help them appreciate the value of the children's presence at school every day, on time. In cases of ill health it may be that the child could be examined by a specialist and the causes removed, thus enabling the child to recover his health and to attend school regularly. Be tactful and cautious in the next case. If you find one in which the children are not in school for lack of clothing or books, take that up with your school board or your superintendent or principal. Usually they are able to get provision made to care for the case. As to the kind of excuses to accept from parents, your superiors in the school system may advise you for what causes you may accept excuses.

k. Punishments. Try to deal with absences and tardies without punishment. If your better means may not avail, you may have to resort to punishment. If parents prevent a child from being at school or from being there on time, you would not be justified in pun-

ishing the child for improper attendance. For unexcused absences some teachers require that the child who has been absent may do all the work which he has missed, working all the examples, answering all the questions, spelling all the words, and so on; doing a little every day, till all is done, not exactly as a punishment, but to keep him from losing anything. Nothing may be done if the parents give him a written excuse, which he brings when he comes back. If he forgets the excuse, the absence is treated as an unexcused absence. If a child comes in late, without a parent's written excuse that very day, some teachers would detain him after school double the time lost by the tardiness. Try to take care of all your bad cases of irregularity and unpunctuality of attendance by personal influence and by your system of attendance on the plans of the ideal.

In helping the children develop habits of punctuality with which they shall through life meet their engagements, and of such regularity of conduct that people will always be able to depend on these children, you will be rendering them a very high type of service, which will stand them in good stead in the years to come. You will, therefore, not treat lightly the educational opportunity that comes to you here.

REFERENCES FOR FURTHER READING

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. Define the terms: attendance; regularity; punctuality.
2. What real values do you attach to habits of punctuality and regularity of attendance at school?
3. Discuss each cause of absence mentioned. To what extent is it serious in your community? How can each be overcome? What other causes also appear in the community with which you are familiar?
4. What are the causes of tardiness in your school? How can they be broken up? Are there any unpreventable causes of tardiness?
5. Should punishment be imposed for absences or tardiness? What sort, if any? Why?
6. What is meant by "ideals of attendance"? To what extent can ideals function in stimulating regular and punctual attendance?

CHAPTER XXIII

“CARRYING ON” THE SCHOOL—2

Attention, Interest, Motives, Incentives

1. **Meanings.** *Attention* is the concentrating of consciousness upon some one element of a situation, relatively ignoring all other elements. Thus one attends to his spelling, when he concentrates his whole consciousness upon the letters forming a word and their order in the word. He gives attention to his writing when he ignores the noises about him, the pictures on the wall, the others sitting in the room, in fact, all other elements of his situation except the one thing of forming the letters which he is writing. He is giving attention to his arithmetic when he has focussed his consciousness upon the one problem which he is trying to solve, ignoring for the time the other problems in the lesson, the other subjects of his curriculum, the other persons near him, and the like.

Interest is the feeling of value. It is a cause of attention. It is no trouble to get the children's attention to that in which they are interested. They are easily interested in certain things by virtue of their original tendencies toward them. Their interests in other things may be cultivated by a gradual shifting of the elements of the situation so as to make a close connection between something which they like very much and the thing in which you are trying to interest them. For example, a child may by nature have a great liking for music. He may be led to do the hard work of

practice, when he sees that the two are tied up together, in order to be able to perform acceptably. Still, we must not become impatient with these two girls, when we find that Mary is interested in music and not in arithmetic, while Sallie is interested in arithmetic and not in music. Their original natures account for part of the difference, and we may never be able to overcome entirely that difference.

Motive is the inner prompting that impels one to a task. It is the call to work or duty. It is the lead that one *feels*. It is the moving force within one. One may work through motives of service. He may become connected with an organization through motives of self-interest. He may study hard through motives of fear or ambition. He may read much alone through motives of enjoyment of good literature. Motive is then the *inner urge* to any task undertaken.

Incentives are the external urges to a task. They are the forces outside one that attracts him to the work. Proper incentives may excite worthy motives, but the incentives themselves are in the situation which the individual faces. The marks which the pupil will receive on his report card may be real incentives for one; a teacher's certificate may be an incentive which forces one through hard review work incident to taking the teachers' examination; the privilege of playing on the school team may be an incentive for a boy who has neglected his work to make improvement.

2. Kinds of attention. It is helpful to a teacher to recognize that there is not merely *attention*, but there are *attentions*. We shall briefly here discuss the following:

a. **Original attention.** This refers to the kind of attention that one gives by original nature. It is not acquired but is given by nature. For example, a child

as soon as he comes to give attention at all will gradually come to give it to things that are *bright*, sounds that are *loud*, objects that are *moving*, scenes that are *changing*, situations that are *novel*. While one may cultivate the giving of attention to situations in which these facts are not the prominent element, yet one never ceases to be interested in situations in which they are prominent. The teacher must appeal to original attention with children in the primary grades. For example, she uses colors that are attractive in her decorations and in her board work. She provides the children with opportunity for singing. She provides movement through dramatization and games. She prevents monotony through a changing program, not holding the children on the thing too long. The old-time school had a child read through the same book several times; now a new book is provided when the first is completed, to present *new* content for the children's consideration. Children are also originally attentive to the *faces* of human beings. Therefore, the teacher who faces her children and looks them straight in the eye, rather than merely reads to them from a book, will be rewarded by the better attention to her on the part of the children. Their interest in changing the form of things causes them to enjoy exercises in construction.

Original attention appeals to—

- 1) Instinctive desire for change and variety;
- 2) Play;
- 3) Curiosity;
- 4) Liking for bright colors, sharp contrasts, and intense stimuli.

b. **Acquired attention.** There are other situations to which children will *learn* to give attention. This type of attention is at first given with an effort, but is later given with ease. Learning the mechanics of read-

ing, studying spelling, working examples, practicing at the piano, and other formal exercises are, after novelty has worn off, hard to attend to. Hence, incentives are resorted to as a means of inducing attention to the work. When one learns to do these things with ease, he hardly seems to give attention to them at all. So one is tempted to say that he is giving attention to them by habit. This would be wrong, as attention and habit represent the inverse of each other in human experience. The more a process is reduced to habit, the less attention one has to give to its performance. The less it is reduced to a habit, the more attention one must give to it to perform it at all. When one first begins to write, he must give very close attention to the forming of the letters. When one learns to write with ease and by habit, one hardly gives any attention at all to the forming of the letters. When one gives original interest to a situation, it is because of one's original interest in the situation. When he gives acquired attention to a situation, or to a piece of work, it is because of the outcome from one's work. One may not be interested in a piece of work, but may force oneself to give attention to it because of the reward that will come to him from the work itself. While one may have to force himself to give attention to tasks that are irksome at first, later, when mastery of these tasks results, one may come to like those tasks so much that attention to them may operate almost as easily as the original attention so active in early life. Such attention is sometimes called *secondary passive attention*. *Acquired or active attention* is then the attention given to tasks or to situations with some degree of effort in one's first contacts with those tasks or situations, but later given with ease, when mastery of the tasks has resulted. It comes as a by-product and as an accompani-

ment of one's education. It is this type of attention to which one must make appeal in the intermediate and upper grades of school. The means of stimulating this type of attention are called incentives, which will be discussed briefly a little later in this chapter.

3. Interests of children. All children are interested in something or some things. They are also interested in one thing more than in another. It is well for the teacher, in her contact and association with children, to study them, and to ascertain just what their predominant interests are. If it may be known in just what things a child is primarily interested, then those things may be made a means of his building interests in the things of the school. They may be made stepping stones for him from his original attention to an acquired attention to the work of school. She finds a child interested in birds, and uses this to stimulate interest in the nature study class. She finds another interested in railroading, and she uses this to stimulate the work in the commercial aspects of geography. She finds yet another interested in solving puzzles and uses this interest in solving the puzzles of arithmetic. She finds one interested in horses and uses this interest to stimulate the study of history, especially those parts of it in which horses played a part. She recognizes that children's interest in anything is enhanced in proportion as they are active participators in the thing, especially as they enter it of their own initiative. Hence, she stimulates this initiative for active participation in particular work of school.

4. Motives. When we speak of attention, interest, motive, incentive, we cannot use these terms in exactly the same sense; yet they do represent phases or aspects or sides of the same human experience. For example, one gives *attention* to a task because of his *interest* either

in the task or in its outcome; one enters upon the doing of the task under the guidance of some *motive*, which in turn is excited by means of an *incentive*, either purposely or accidentally set up. So then each of these aspects of human experience fulfills a separate function, yet they are not entirely separated. You appeal to a motive; you employ an incentive. Motives are of two kinds:

a. **Individual motives.** The influence of this kind of motive appeals to one's private interests. One actuated by individual motives has in mind his own welfare primarily. Such motives may be thought of as *lower* and *higher*.

1) *Lower motives.* It is better that one be educated under the impelling force of lower motives than to be left in ignorance. One should appeal to the lower individual motives only when the higher individual motives and the social motives are not effective. It seems necessary to appeal to one's *fear of punishment* in some cases. One may do things through *greed*, and refuse to do them through *anger*. Both of these are unworthy and improper motives, yet many acts in the lives of some individuals are done under the impulse of these motives. Many pupils will do their work under the *fear of disapproval* of either their fellows or of their teacher. It is better that it be done under such a motive than not done at all. *Rivalry*, just to beat someone else, is a very improper school motive, yet it functions in the large in determining many acts of human life.

2) *Higher motives.* Life is filled with the work of men for the *hope of reward*. It is not improper for children to do school work in the hope of a reward, if the reward be such that all who come up to a certain standard of achievement may win. It is no little reward for a

child that comes in the form of a promotion ticket, or in a diploma of graduation, or in satisfaction of work well done, as reflected “at the end of a perfect day” of one’s school career. It is entirely proper to make use of the instinct of *curiosity* as a motive in certain subjects, for study. There is much satisfaction to be derived just from the quest of certain knowledge. The *satisfaction of doing right* or well is a worthy motive under influence of which a child is willing to attack a hard problem, even though for the time it may be not at all interesting, if it may be worth the effort in the long run. Many things are done in life under the influence of *imitation*. Some of them are worthy and others are very harmful. If the doing may be worth while, if the learning in school through imitation be desirable, and if it may lead to the desire on the part of the learner to choose many models in life worthy of imitation, the encouragement is permissible. It is not wrong to appeal to a child’s native *desire for approval* by others, his fellow pupils and his teacher, as a motive for better school work. A very fine sort of self-effort is sometimes stimulated by the use of the principles of *self-rivalry* as a motive for work. In this a child is stimulated to excel former efforts. The use of the standard scales of measurement is useful to this end. When a child’s position on the scale is indicated, another point a little ahead is set as his next immediate goal. Every one feels a certain *pride in personal achievement*, which influences one to put forth very intense efforts. A manufacturer of hammers one day received a party of visitors. When they had seen through his factory, one of them remarked, “Well, you make a pretty good hammer.” The manufacturer replied quickly, “I do not make a pretty good hammer. I make the best hammer made in the United States.” He had

spared no efforts nor expense to make hammers as good as they could be made. It is fine to get pupils to do jobs of so excellent character that they are proud of the work. The emphasis in modern education now is in the appeal to a child's *feeling of a need* for the thing to be learned. Wilson in *Motivation of Schoolwork*, says, "The need supplies the motive for the learning." Wilson also lists the following types of motives, incident to life, which may be utilized in school work:

- a) Earning ~~money~~ and acquiring property;
- b) Competition;
- c) Playing games;
- d) Construction;
- e) Entertaining;
- f) Sharing;
- g) Advancing oneself in the esteem of others;
- h) Promoting self-development;
- i) Collecting and preserving; and
- j) Fitting for life career.

In the appeal of teachers to the motives of pupils, the appeal should always be to the highest motive that a child can appreciate.

b. Social motives. Some of the more important social motives are mentioned here. When a child comes to do school work willingly through motives of coöperation, he has already gone a long way toward good living among other pupils in a community. It is a worthy social motive for a child to study hard, in order to help his group win in the spelling match or in any other group contest. Call it *group rivalry*. The *mutual help* which children may render each other by dividing up the sources of information bearing on the problem, each to report on his reading for the benefit of all the other members of the class, is splendid training for children in their preparation for life. Some children are so led to appreciate the *good name of their school* that it seems to impel them to try to do good work each day

and to frown upon poor work as unworthy of a place in their school. These children are already putting art into their work. It is from those children who have a love for the beautiful and the perfect and a contempt for the ugly and shabby that artists come to bless the world. The finest motive under the influence of which one may possibly do work is that of *service*. That has been held in high esteem throughout the ages. In the Battle of Crescy the blind king of Bohemia who took part and who was killed in that battle wore upon his crest a motto which read *Ich dien*, which when translated means *I serve*. The fundamental fact about a professional person is *service of an expert sort*. When a youth seeks a higher education through motives of service and then goes forth into the world *to serve* efficiently his fellowmen in ways that are honorable and helpful, his work becomes professional, regardless of what his vocation may be.

5. **Incentives.** This is the name given to those elements of school situations purposely set up by the teacher or accidentally appearing and determining the motives of pupils for their work and therefore influencing the character of the work. Incentives call from the outside. They are external influences to excite certain motives which will modify a pupil's action along desired lines.

a. **Repressive incentives.** These may all be put under one word, *punishment*. A child behaves in certain ways which are not desirable. The acts of his need to be inhibited. Of course, there are better incentives to employ than punishment, but sometimes it is necessary. The subject of punishments has been discussed so much at length that it seems unnecessary to discuss it further here. So we merely classify *punishments* as *repressive incentives* and pass on to the—

b. **Stimulative incentives.** This term refers to those means employed by the teacher to stimulate good work, rather than to repress bad behavior. The types of these incentives are as follows:

1) *Material incentives.* This term is to include all the incentives involved under such terms as money prizes, medals, books, and other things of a money value. This type of incentive is not regarded highly in modern education. The teacher should never give a prize of money. If medals are given in a contest, the entrance into the contest should be voluntary, none being required to enter it. If such contest be had, the pupils in it should be taught how to be good losers, as well as good winners. Medals, while having a money value, are not usually regarded in the same way as money. In this sort of contest only one person can win. The results are frequently dissatisfaction over the decision, enmities between children lasting through life, disappointments by the losers and snobbishness on the part of the winner. To be sure, if the teacher may manage the contest right, or when between two schools those in charge of it may instruct their pupils in advance, the result may be entirely satisfactory. In a given school, as a general thing, material incentives are poor stimuli to better school work.

2) *Sentimental incentives.* The author here uses this term to name the reward or the symbol or the evidence which a child may receive in consequence of a certain achievement. This type of incentive may sometimes cost money, but is worth nothing to anyone but the winner. It is, too, the type of incentive that is to appeal to all.

a) *School marks.* It is of some influence to children as to what marks are given them on their reports. Such is not confined to children. Adult students in a uni-

versity are also keenly interested in the “marks” which are to come to them as evidence of faithful work. Marks are of particular value, if they determine one’s passing to another grade, or if they affect one’s chances of playing on the school team. The claim that children should not work for marks means nothing. Let the reader try to verify that fact in his or her own experience as a pupil in school. The proper marks are merely a temporary stimulant during the progress of work and a satisfying accompaniment at the close of work. It is permissible that children be given marks of such kind as a teacher can fairly give. This will be further discussed later on.

b) *Tickets*. One teacher gave to her pupils in spelling a ticket for each perfect spelling lesson. It had printed on it “One perfect spelling lesson.” The children liked to get those tickets and would study their lessons and try to make all the words. When a child received twenty such cards, he could bring them in and get a card in another color, having printed on it, “Twenty perfect spelling lessons.” About March of the year all the children had received several of these latter tickets except one child, who was the poorest speller in the room. Just about that time he received his twentieth ticket of the first type. Not one in the room in the whole year received with more pride his ticket of the second type than this poor speller. He had worked hard and long. At last he had made it. He was proud of it. Another teacher used a ticket which was given at the close of each day, and on which were printed these words: “A satisfactory day’s work.” This ticket was given to each pupil who had done satisfactory work in every subject during the day and whose conduct had also been satisfactory. As in-

centives both these devices were highly stimulative of better work.

c) *Honor rolls.* Similar in effect with the above are honor rolls on which are placed the names of children who achieve a certain standard in attendance, or in their subjects, or in a combination of both. For example, one teacher puts up at the end of the month the names of all the children who have no unexcused absences, no tardies, and have made only A's and B's on their school work. This honor roll may be also published in the local papers. Another teacher arranges her honor rolls by rows, as the children sit in the room. She puts up one roll entitled, "Star Speakers." At the end of each day, if no one in a given row has been heard to use any one of certain listed speech errors, that row is given on the roll one star. The rows compete with each other to see which may use most infrequently the speech errors which have been discovered in that community. Soon no one in school is using these errors. This incentive for attention to the forms of speech, if properly cared for, is worth while. There are many other such rolls or posters. There are the Junior Red Cross membership roll, the thrift posters, and the like.

d) *Privileges and immunities.* Such privileges as the permission to read a special book, when other work is out of the way; the appointment as monitors in reward for certain excellent work; a half-hour off on Friday for satisfactory attendance a whole week by all the children,—these are used by many teachers as incentives for attention to certain desirable conduct by the children. Immunities from certain school requirements, given in recognition of a certain character of work, are employed frequently. The author believes, however, that immunities are not wise. If the work is worth while, no child should be excused from it. He sets forth

his reasons for not approving immunities from examinations in paragraph 15, Chapter XIII.

e) *Games*. Some teachers in primary grades tell the children that, if they will read their lesson well, they may then choose their own characters and play the lesson. Games are also brought in with number and other subjects of primary grades. Particularly is it done in physical education.

f) *Contests*. This refers primarily to group contests. These take place in the form of matches in spelling, to stimulate review; in the form of challenges of one room to another, in number; in inter-school activities. All this has its favorable effect. The chief objection to it is that the influence is upon too small a proportion of the pupils.

g) *Praise and commendation*. When a child has done well, it is legitimate that the child should know that the teacher so regards his work. Yet there are dangers here. Praise should never take the form of flattery, nor should it be overdone. Flattery is insincere and is soon so understood by the pupils. Over-praise causes egotism on the part of the recipient and disdain by the other pupils. Certain praise comes in the form of the marks or grades which the teacher gives the pupils on their work. This is impersonal. In addition, a little of personal commendation goes to the heart of the pupil and he is more willing than ever to do hard work. This is to be given sparingly.

h) *Promotions*. The annual, or semi-annual, promotions, do serve as incentives for better work on the part of many pupils. The teacher can use this as a legitimate appeal both to the pupil and to the parents. Pupils and parents do not relish the idea of the child's being left behind, when his classmates go on up into another grade. “Promotions” in positions in industry

act as a stimulus to more faithful work to those who really consider seriously their future. There is nothing wrong about this, unless it become the sole motive of one's effort.

i) *The exhibits of pupils' work.* When children understand that there will frequently be public days and that there will be posted one piece of work in every subject for every pupil, they will work more carefully. They do not like to have people come to visit their exhibits and find a poor piece of work up from them. They will come to feel a certain pride in having something up that is quite creditable. In such exhibits, not merely the few pieces of the best pupils should be posted, but something from every child in every subject which he carries. A true exhibit of the school's work can in no other way be made.

j) *Ideals.* An ideal of the higher sort is the best incentive for one's work. In opening exercises and incidentally at other times the teacher needs to hold before the children the ideals that have served to make the lives of others rich in service to mankind. As rapidly as possible, bring the children's work under the influence of such ideals. The stories from the Bible and from other good literature are good, because of their richness in ideals. An ideal may be thought of as a standard of perfection. It is the present limit of one's conception of perfection in a given line. It is an emotional attitude of striving for the best. It is a goal that seems worth while, regardless of material considerations. The wise teacher brings many ideals to bear upon the children in the matter of their work and behavior. Among such ideals are the following, applicable to school work:

- Perfect attendance;
- A perfect day's work;
- The right thing;
- Preparation for service;

Giving one's best for a cause;
Patriotism;
Honor;
Truth;
Right living;
Service.

These and many others have values as school incentives that are incalculable. They have values in life that make life beautiful, attractive, and worth while. Carl Schurz said, “Ideals are like stars; you will not succeed in touching them with your hands. But like the sea-faring man on deserts of water, you choose them as your guides and following them reach your destiny.” Bagley says, page 220 of *The Educative Process*, “The main aim in education is to instill ideals that will function as judgments.” Let the teacher bring the children under the influence of ideals to establish a very favorable attitude in the minds of the pupils toward school work and toward school conduct. A teacher who had done this was surprised one day when the worst boy in her room came to her and quietly asked her if he might move his seat over to the side of the room so that he could sit under the picture of Sir Galahad, which hung on the wall. He was permitted to do this and his behavior changed decidedly from that time on. Let there be a growing appeal to the best in children.

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QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Define: attention; interest; motive; incentive; ideals.
2. How would you distinguish these terms from one another? Do they mean the same? Are they related? How?
3. Explain carefully each of the kinds of attention.
4. What appeals can you make for original attention? For acquired attention?
5. Do all children have the same interests? How can you differentiate the emphasis which you put upon your different subjects, in recognition of the interests of different children?
6. Can you get the school work done altogether through appeal to the higher motives? To which would you most appeal? Why? Which can be most effectively used, the individual or the social motives? Why? What specific motives do you regard as most worthy?
7. Criticize each incentive listed in this chapter. Which of them do you like? Why? How important do you regard ideals? How will you come to make use of them?
8. Make a list of proper school ideals.

CHAPTER XXIV

“CARRYING ON” THE SCHOOL—3

A. Seat Work; Home Work

1. **Purpose of seat work.** When a recitation has been finished, if a teacher would conserve the children's time and not increase her own difficulties, she will make as careful provision for the seat work as for the class work of the children. Without this provision, the children would be idle; they would be without employment; it would be easy for them to get into mischief; and their time, set aside for educational purposes, would be worse than wasted. This work is often spoken of as “busy work”; but it must be more than mere “busy work.” It must serve an educative purpose. The work of the children with it must result in intellectual growth or other educative effects. Care must be had, not only that the material for seat work will be provided, but also that this material may be of a genuinely educative sort.

2. **Seat work in primary grades.** A resourceful primary grade teacher soon works out for herself just the sort of material for seat work, or selects it from what manufacturers provide. The beginning teacher in these grades will find much help in the experience of good primary teachers. Lack of space prevents our going into detail in suggesting just the material to use. Seat work following a number work lesson may be practice in making the figures; the use of toothpicks, or splints, or grains of corn, or other objects to be counted into

combinations, in application of what has been had in the recitation; later the solving of little problems in addition and subtraction, with objects and with pencil and paper, the work becoming more advanced as the children advance. In reading and language, it may be the use of seat work boxes from which the children may take materials, according to the kind of boxes, and with letters build words; with words build sentences; match words with pictures; match parts of words with other parts; filling blanks in sentences, and the like. The use of scissors and paper may be made educative, too, by having the children cut out and make things in illustration of the lesson just recited. Certain companies make large provision for materials for seat work at small cost. See references at close of the chapter.

3. Seat work for intermediate and grammar grades.

The assignment of lessons to be prepared will constitute the provision for much of the seat work of these grades. A carefully made daily program will provide a schedule for study at the seats, as well as for recitations. Seat work should, in elementary grades, be largely of the applicational sort, or that of directed study. After a principle has been taught in arithmetic, examples may be worked out at the seats in application of the principle. When a plan has been made in class for the writing of a paper in composition, the actual writing of it may take place at the pupils' seats. In geography, history, hygiene, seat work may involve the finding of answers to problems written on the board. There are striking individual differences in children as to the efficiency with which they can do the work. Some can work much more rapidly than others. The fast workers should soon be discovered and thus provision made for them of a kind of work that they like to do. If this is not done, the best workers will soon become

the hardest to control; if kept at work, they will be most easily controlled.

4. **Home work.** There is little home work that needs to be given to children in the primary grades to do. They may read their lessons over to their parents, or tell them a story learned at school, or find certain things that may be used at school in their classes. Most work for primary grades, if not quite all of it, can be taken care of in school hours. From the fourth grade up, an increasing amount of home work may be assigned, but it should never become heavy until after entrance into high school. If children spend six hours a day in school, little more time needs to be given to school work, if the time in school be well spent. The kind of work to be done at home should be the applicational work, after principles and methods of doing the work should have been determined in class. It may be reading of a kind that is interesting to children. Some examples in arithmetic can be worked; some questions in geography, history, hygiene, can be looked up; some sentences can be written, and the like. The teacher, in assigning home work, should have in mind the probable time that it will take in each subject to do it, total it for the several subjects, and regulate the amounts accordingly. It is not wise to assign home work in many subjects for the same evening.

The natural limitations of home work should be recognized. It must not be made a burden to the children. It must not be made too great a cause of annoyance to the parents. Yet a limited amount of home work, that may be done in from one-half hour to one and one-half hours, may be of great value. Such would tend to restrain too frequent attendance upon the commercialized moving picture shows which are often as deëducational as the school is educational; such would gradually serve

to build up habits of studying alone, which is a goal truly worth while. Again, in many rural schools, the school term is so short that it would seem a useful device to get as much work done as possible, without burdening the children, as a supplement to that done in the school day. In high school children may be expected to study about three hours out of school—to make an eight-hour day for study and recitation.

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5. Lincoln, L. I.: *Everyday Pedagogy*, pp. 28; 62. Ginn, 1915.
6. Sage, Elizabeth, and Cooley, Anna M.: *Occupations for Little Fingers*. Scribner's, 1905.
7. *Educative Seat Work*. A bulletin written by F. W. Dunn, and published by the State Normal School, Farmville, Virginia.

Materials for seat work may be purchased from:

D. H. Knowlton and Co., Farmington, Maine; J. L. Hammett Company, Boston, Mass.; Milton Bradley Company, Philadelphia, Pa.; and Edward E. Babb and Company, Boston, Mass.

B. The Course of Study.

The course of study is a statement of what you are to teach in your grade or grades. In some states, it gives the lists of text-books, suggests reasonable and sup-

posedly average amounts of work to attempt in each subject in each grade. Sometimes one has the use of a county or city course of study; again, he has the advantage of a state course of study. Usually, more help is derived from a good city or county course of study than from a state course of study. More concrete suggestions, applicable to the local field, are given. The best course of study would be the one made exactly for one's own particular school. Yet it is too much to expect a beginning teacher to do this, in view of her lack of experience and training for that sort of work. Besides, in some school systems, the teacher is required to conform very closely to an officially prepared and adopted course of study. Probably the best course of study yet prepared for a single school is the Speyer Curriculum, which may be purchased at small cost from the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

How to use the course of study. If one has no printed course of study, a copy may be had from the superintendent. At first, until one has mastered the procedure, it will be well to conform very closely to the printed course, even though permitted by the authorities to vary from it. One may find in it the names of the books adopted for the local school or grade. He or she may ascertain just what portions of the books are to be covered by the class within the school session. The texts which the children have studied before they were promoted to their present grades and also for which they are preparing during the present year will be listed. More attention must be given, however, to the needs and the abilities of children than to the course of study. If during the year the teacher may find that too much has been outlined for the particular group of children, she should do thoroughly all possible and stop

at the end of the year where the work is concluded, even though the whole outlay may not have been covered by the class. Let the point reached be indicated so that the teacher who may receive these children next year will be able to govern her work accordingly. If the present class is composed of very brilliant children, they may be able to go beyond the limits laid out for the year; if so, this should be done. The course of study was made for the children and not the children for the course of study. If it does not fit in its original form, it may be lengthened or reduced to fit a given grade. If an individual child is very bright, he may be permitted to do extra reading or even to take an additional subject. If one is very weak, some consideration should be shown that child. His life should not be "nagged" out of him, because of his lack of ability. This child may take one or more subjects in the grade below, or even discontinue one subject. You say that makes the organization irregular? Remember that the teacher is not there to keep things regular, but to serve the children in the way that they need to be served. The course of study, to this end, is to be one's servant, not his master.

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C. School Grades or Marks

The term “grades” is used both to indicate classes and to indicate marks given on reports. In this section it is to mean the “marks” given on reports to indicate standing or achievement.

1. System of marks. There are several systems in actual use in the school organizations in the United States. One very common system is that in which the teacher tries to mark the children’s work in terms of per cents. A child may be given 82 on arithmetic, 85 on spelling, and so forth. That is the most difficult system of all to use. Because of the subjective judgment which a teacher uses in giving such marks, it is really impossible to mark a child accurately by this system. Two teachers grading the same paper will not give the child the same mark. The same teacher, grading the same paper at two different times, if she might have the name of the writer of the paper and the grade given at the first reading concealed in some way, will actually find herself giving the same paper two different marks. The author had the members of the senior class in a normal school mark the same paper in arithmetic, no one knowing the mark given by any other student, till the work had been finished. Their marks ran all the way from 14 to 75, with a median mark of 35. Unless the school system requires one to use this plan of marking papers, it is advisable not to use it.

Other plans of marking papers are the use of:

A, B, C, D, E, or

1, 2, 3, 4, 5, or

E, S, A, I, F.

In any one of these plans the first letter or figure indicates the best mark, and the succeeding marks indicate the relatively lower grades. A useful meaning of these letters and figures might be about as follows:

A, or 1, or E, *Excellent* work, as done by about 10% of the class;

B, or 2, or S, *Superior* work, as done by the next best 20% of the class;

C, or 3, or A, *Average* work, as done by about 40% of the class;

D, or 4, or I, *Inferior* work, but passable, as done by the 20% of the class just below the average; and

E, or 5, or F, *Failure* by not over 10% of the class.

Whether these marks have previously meant just these percentages of the class in which the children grade themselves by their work in terms of the achievements of the whole class or not, one will certainly make no mistake in using the letters or figures to indicate fairly closely these percentages of your class in each subject, to indicate who gets the marks used. A more exact distribution of marks among members of your class would be 7% for the best mark; 24% for the next best mark; 38% for the average mark; 24% just below average, but passing; and not over 7% to fail. This latter is found to be a more exact and scientific distribution of grades among the members of the class. Similar distributions of grades are used in some schools and universities. In marking papers, so far as papers are concerned, a good plan is to let the children use numbers, instead of names, so that the teacher does not know the name of a child in reading his paper. Suppose there are forty children in the room. The 10%, 20%, 40%, 20% and 10% of the class would be, respectively, 4, 8, 16, 8, and 4 pupils. If one may take the papers, after looking them over, and put them for this subject in five piles, the four best papers in one pile, the eight next best papers in the next, the sixteen average papers in the middle pile, the eight next papers in a fourth pile, and the four poorest papers in the last pile, he could mark

A, or 1, on the papers in the best pile; B, or 2, on the papers in the next best, etc. Upon reaching the last four, it could be considered whether they should be passed (with D, or 4) or failed (with E, or 5). The distribution may be slightly skewed up or down, in small classes, as a means of doing better justice to the children of the class. One does not *have* to fail any pupils, nor to give any A's, if that seem best. On the other hand, if a teacher give a very large proportion of the class the best mark, or give a very large proportion of the class the failure mark, something is wrong either with the teaching or the grading. The teacher may allow half credit for class work and half for tests. Other teachers allow three fourths, or two thirds, for class work, and one fourth or one third, for tests. In making up the grade for class work, that should be done independently and separately from the test grading, the teacher taking the best four in class work for grade A, or 1, and so on. After class grades are given, the teacher, not letting himself or herself know what the test grade for each child is, till both be separately finished, may compute an average in greater justice to the child than if accorded by the usual subjective procedure.

There is great drudgery involved in the ordinary looking-over of papers. This may be somewhat reduced by use of the children to help. For example, the teacher may have the children exchange papers, two or more steps over, at any rate far enough away that a child looking over a paper will not be close to the writer of the paper. The teacher tells what the answer is, and instructs the children how to indicate the value. Suppose there are five questions. If they are equally difficult, they may be valued at ten points each. If a question is absolutely right, it may be marked “10,” in

case of a certain error it may be marked "9," or "8," or "7," etc., according to the amount of error, the teacher telling the children how to indicate it. They go over each question in that way. When the end of the paper is reached, the sum of these values may be put at the top of the paper by the child's name or number.

The teacher may, in upper grades, appoint a child as monitor to grade the papers in a given subject; another child for another subject, and so on. The ones appointed would be changed frequently till perhaps all should have enjoyed the "honor." The teacher would take the child and go over two or three papers and show him or her how to mark and grade them. The children would appreciate the honor of "assisting" the teacher in this work. In either of these cases the teacher cannot just turn the matter over to the children, but must carefully direct it. Work of this kind properly done by the children would have quite as educative values as other school work, especially if it be treated as an honor.

If it does not seem safe to have the children help the teacher in marking the papers, and if the teacher is about to begin to do the task of looking over the papers, it is well that the teacher sit down and answer all the questions himself or herself, actually writing out the answers. He or she can then use those answers as the standard by which to measure the answers of the pupils. It will prevent the changing of judgment of the values in the answers which develops as one proceeds to mark a pile of papers.

As a new teacher in a community, ascertain what method of marking has been in use there previously. Do not inaugurate a new scheme which varies very radically from that. After all, the marks and grades

are minor matters in proportion to the great work and purposes of the school. They are merely incidental things to the real tasks of education. These marks which are put on the children's reports at the end of the month, or of the term, should be explained to the children as not the big values of school. The children should be led to esteem those fundamental things which are far back of marks. A new teacher should introduce new things gradually, even though they are an improvement over previous practice. When the people have come to esteem the new teacher for what he or she is, then it will be easy to introduce those practices which are new and good. Let progress be by evolution and not be revolution. In working in a local system, under the direction of a superintendent, or supervisor, or a principal, it is best to use the devices, the schemes, and the methods which they will approve. New ones may be recommended; but whatever the officials decide to use, it is one's duty as a loyal teacher to carry out faithfully the directions received from those superiors.

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D. Gradation and Promotion.

1. Meaning of terms. "Grading" here means grouping together into one grade or class those children who are most nearly homogeneous in ability to do school work. It is the classifying of the children who have come to school to be taught, not by subjects but by abilities to do work. Children are frequently classified in terms of the number of years during which they have attended school, with slight variations in extreme cases. That is not the best basis of classification. If one can find out those children who are most nearly of the same ability to do mental work, they may best be grouped together in one "grade." That is not easy to do, but the discovering in recent years of means of measuring children's ability to do work helps discover likeness and also unlikeness in mental ability.

Promotion means the taking of children from a given grade and advancing them to another in which they may do proper work. They may be advanced a half-grade, a whole grade, or more, according to the plan of promotion in use in the system. In most schools promotions take place annually. In some schools they occur semi-annually. In others promotions may be made at any time at which a child's interests may be served by the promotion.

2. Values. Grading is valuable in that it makes for economy in teaching more children at a time; it stimulates children to work to keep up with their grade; it makes possible specialized work on the part of the teachers. The most serious disadvantages are that proper provision is sometimes not made for the interests of individual pupils, and that persons who teach just one grade all the time tend to become narrow and to fail to see the necessity of study and growth. It is pos-

sible to realize the values and also to avoid the disadvantages.

3. Systems of promotion. As the choice of a system of gradation and promotion is a problem of the superintendent or principal, rather than that of the teacher, it is not necessary to employ the space here to explain the Cambridge Plan, or the Elizabeth Plan, or the Pueblo Plan, or the Batavia Plan, or any of the other famous plans of meeting this phase of school work. If the teacher should be interested in examining the merits of these and other plans, their advantages and disadvantages, as well as their exact methods, an account of them may be found in some of the books listed under “References for Further Reading.” Suffice it here to say that, if a given plan is in use in the system of schools in which one works, he or she should loyally help carry it out. In obedience to the authorities who have elected the teacher and are paying the salary, one cannot do otherwise. On the other hand, if the matter be left to the teacher, the suggestions herein given will be of value to you.

In actual school practice it seldom happens that grading really grades. To be sure, it selects groups to work together; but there are individuals in the fourth grade who can do better work than some in the fifth. So it goes in other grades. This is due to the attempt to group the children together according to the number of years during which the children have been in school; but the children have not grown mentally at the same rate. It is sometimes found that some of the children in a given grade can do better spelling, or better writing, or better arithmetic, than others one, two, or even three grades ahead of them. Yet in a school in which one finds such a condition, he or she needs to go slowly about tearing up that arrangement. If the children

may be given any standard test, as in spelling, writing, arithmetic, the difference in the abilities of the children will be revealed at once in so far as the subject tested is concerned. If one use the Courtis Addition Test for the fourth, fifth and sixth grades, forty children in each grade, there may be found results about as follows:

Examples worked correctly	GRADE 4 40 pupils	GRADE 5 40 pupils	GRADE 6 40 pupils
8	..	..	..
7	..	..	2
6	..	..	2
5	3	8	14
4	7	15	14
3	16	12	6
2	10	4	1
1	2	1	1
0	2	0	0

Let the reader try the pupils in an eight-minute test, using the Courtis Tests, and see whether some such results as the above may not appear. Then, one sees that the ten best pupils in the fourth grade do about as well as the average pupils in the sixth grade. When one uses several such tests and compares the results obtained in the different grades, he or she begins to feel that "grading" does not grade very well into classes of pupils having equal working ability. One feels that re-grading is needed; yet he or she is unable at once to put into effect too radical a procedure.

If one takes a class of beginners and lets them grow as fast as nature makes possible for them in their first year at school, he or she will see one third, or one fourth, at least, doing not only all the work of the first year but in addition thereto half, or even all, of the work of the second year. It is right that they should be permitted to do this. Nature has endowed them with superior gifts, which can not be well exercised with less

work. About one half of the grade just covers the work of the year, as outlined. About one fourth of the grade does little more than one half of the work for the first year. Clearly, these children should not be kept in the same class throughout the first year. They should be separated into sections, according to their growth. They should not all go to the same classes next year, for the same reason. At least the brighter pupils of the first grade could be grouped temporarily with the slower ones of the second grade. Other combinations are possible.

4. **Bases of promotion.** Promotion becomes an incentive to a pupil to do better work. Promotion becomes his right, if he does his work satisfactorily. He should also understand the basis on which promotion is made. In some schools promotion is made solely on the basis of the *teacher's judgment*, just as he or she sees the pupils after a year or half-year of association with them. This is not the best basis. One's subjective judgment is so faulty. Again, the basis may be that of an *examination*. This, again, is not the best method. Some children cannot in a short period devoted to an examination really show all their fitness for work in a given grade. The combination of the examination and the teacher's judgment is probably the best that can be done for a few years yet, in order to determine what children are to go into the several grades. The time will probably come when children will be promoted in terms of a combination of the following:

a. The educational age, as shown by the average achievement in their several school subjects, and as determined by standard tests;

b. The power to do mental work, as shown by intelligence tests; and

c. The teacher's rating of the individual children

whom she has taught, with no reference to the tests.

The average of the foregoing would probably be the fairest basis to be had. We have not gone so far as that yet. Until that time shall have been reached, the average of the children's class standing with the teacher's rating and examination is probably the best that can be done in most school systems now.

5. Allowable variations. Many sins have been committed against childhood, because of extreme administration of *gradedness*. Gradation and promotion, after all, are but means to ends, which ends are the educational service of children. When a literal carrying out of the system harms rather than serves, variations are in order, if proper ones can be found.

a. Re-classification during the session. This may be the division of a grade into sections, or a further division of sections into sub-sections. It may be the promotion of a child a half-grade further on. It may mean the actual demotion of a child to the next lower grade, if it be found that he just cannot do the work of the grade into which he has been placed. Promotions and gradations should be made with extreme care, so that demotions may not have to be made often. It is much more pleasant to promote than to demote. If combinations of classes, after several weeks, seem well, that would be in order. A grade cannot be definitely made to stay fixed, in view of the different rates of growth in different children. Expect irregularities, rather than a continued likeness.

b. Partial promotions. A child who has done good work in a portion of his studies and has done poor work in others should not be kept back in those in which he has done passing work, as a penalty for the poor work in the others. Children do not regard that as just. You would not, either. A brilliant child who is promoted

to a given grade and is capable of carrying an added subject in the grade above should be permitted to do so, and to take the subject that he cares most for. A child who has passed on history, geography and spelling may be promoted in those and permitted to repeat his arithmetic and language in the previous grade, if that seems necessary. Schedules should be made so that such variations may be possible.

c. Caring for the subnormal and the supernormal children. In a class of forty children there are, possibly, eight children who do inferior, but passable work. There may be about four who just cannot make the work of the grade and for whom promotion would be folly. If the grade as a whole be weak, there will be more than four not strong enough to do the work of the next grade. If you have a strong class, probably not a child will fail of promotion. In the former cases, if it might be possible to promote them a half-grade, it is some encouragement. In the latter case, the best four out of forty might be promoted a grade and a half, if these four show decidedly superior ability, and if they are willing to read over privately during vacation the portion of their texts which would be missed by the extra half-year promotion. Still, as to the missed portion, the true basis of promotion is not what has been covered, but what is the child's power to do work. If that can stand the test of an extra promotion, that is the first consideration.

d. Providing for any other individual differences. Let the system of gradation and promotion be a servant, not a master. It should not be used as an idol before which one would offer up innocent childhood as a sacrifice. When the further variation of your classification or gradation or promotion schemes will work for the benefit of individuals and will not work harm to

other individuals, let it be allowed. Sometimes the irregular but proper provision for one individual may mean more to the state and to humanity than the systematic provision for the whole crowd. If a child may be a musical genius, and if the parents would like for that child to be excused from one class so that the private study of music can be carried on, it is legitimate for the teacher and the parents to agree on what study shall be temporarily discontinued, in order that the one in which the child is really strong may be continued. If a child's health or nervous temperament may make it advisable to lighten the work of given years, the child might carry three fourths work, or even half work, or stay in school just half the day, looking forward to making up the loss in another year. If a child may be a very strong child intellectually, his classification may permit him to carry an extra subject, or to enrich his course of study with a course of reading personally selected for him by his teacher. Any system of gradation and promotion aims to get into groups those children who can work at more nearly the same rate and efficiency and to provide just the intellectual work by which a child's education may be best promoted. In case of division of a grade into sections in the same room, a child may be in the B section in arithmetic and in the A section in geography. Such a division should not be hard and fast for all pupils for all their subjects. Let an individual pupil be put in the section, or grade, or group, in which he can do his best work.

6. Promotion lists. At the end of the year, when the teacher comes to make promotion lists, he or she should do this very carefully, just as one would like another teacher to do for him or her. It is assumed that any teacher, in starting out with a set of new pupils, will give them a brief review to get a "running start"

for the new work. The written promotion lists which the teacher makes should indicate exactly at what points in each subject each class should start next year, as soon as this review may have been made. It should indicate the names of the pupils who failed and who must repeat the work entirely. There should never be many of these. This list should also give the names of those children who are irregular, indicating the subjects in which they are promoted and those which they should repeat. If the school has sections in each grade, the promotion list should give the names of those *not promoted*, the names of those *promoted half a grade*, the names of those *promoted a whole grade*, and the names of those *promoted a grade and a half or two grades*. It may not be well to undertake to promote a child more than one grade until one can get an opportunity to take a course in Educational Psychology dealing with the individual differences of children, and also courses in Standard Tests and Measurements. Write on the promotion lists a full explanation of your promotions, as a personal communication to the teacher who will next year have these children, that the interests of these children may be fully cared for. Let this be done even though one may expect to return and teach these same children next year. It is easy to forget so many things in vacation. Also in vacation one may resign, or die, or get married. Let records be left in unmistakable direction for the next year's interest of the children whom the teacher has in the year's work learned to love.

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E. Individual differences

Probably enough has already been said to emphasize to the beginning teacher how individual children are, how unlike they are, how they differ from each other. Yet the fact is so very important that the author fears to omit further reference to it. Individuality is not altogether a mere differentness from other children. It is their very nature. It is the fundamentals of themselves. It is their real capital. To be sure, part of their original nature is not best expressed in conduct; yet everyone has a side to himself that is native, the development of which is very desirable. Individuality is the very soul of a child. It is the essential fact of the child's life. It is his birthright already in his own possession. If the teacher may conserve this individuality of a child, whether it varies like, or very differently from, that of other children, a true contribution to the state and to society has been made. If the conservation of a child's true individuality involves a different treatment, that treatment should be accorded. Look well to a child's differences in height, in weight, in physical vigor, in interests, in intellectual ability, in tastes, and try to do for him the thing that will bring out of him the best life which he is capable of giving to the world. Encourage him in his chief interests, if they make for

good; be patient with him in his weaknesses, and try to help him overcome them. It is sometimes said that school education tends to hinder the development of one's real individuality. While it should hinder the development of a certain side of one's nature, it should on the other hand be very stimulative to the growth of the desirable in individuality. The modern emphasis on initiative on the part of a child in the classroom tends to aid in this desideratum.

Children differ from each other in the ability to learn each of their subjects, in the power to remember, in their capacities for accuracy or speed, in their ease of developing moral habits, in their attitudes of appreciation for the better things. Not only are individual differences in these respects and in many other respects; but it is also a fact that education increases the degree of differences, rather than decreases them. Fourteen-year-old twins are less alike than they were at ten years of age. Again, while a child may be very brilliant in some subjects, he may not be brilliant in other subjects; though in most instances a child who does well in some of his subjects will do well in the others. A child who shows a decided ability in a given subject should be encouraged in that subject, though the others should not be neglected. It is one of the tasks of the teacher to adapt the instruction to the varying abilities, attitudes, motives, interests, as shown in the pupils' work in their different subjects.

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QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What purposes are served by properly provided seat work?
2. How should it differ as between the primary and the upper grades?
3. To what extent should children be given home work?
4. Have you a course of study? How can you get one? What services will it be to you?
5. What variations from the outlined course of study are permissible?
6. What system of school marks do you prefer? Why?
7. In a fair distribution of marks over a class, about what percentage should receive the different marks?
8. How may the drudgery of grading papers be reduced? Are there any dangers in this procedure? How avoid them? In case you grade all the papers yourself, what is a good method of avoiding variation in your own judgment as you proceed?
9. What is meant by gradation? Promotion? Can you always promote children as a group? Why? What exceptions are necessary?
10. What are the bases of promotion? Which is the best? What variations from strict gradation are permissible? Criticize each one suggested.
11. What care should be taken as to promotion lists?
12. What is individuality? How can it best be conserved?

CHAPTER XXV

"CARRYING ON" THE SCHOOL—4

Moral Training

1. **Meaning of morality.** In common parlance, morality is the sum total of such behavior on the part of an individual as meets the approval of the wisest of the community. It is conduct conforming to the requirements of face-to-face social groups. As one is necessarily a member of many social groups, he may be said to possess many moralities, or lacks of them. One is a member of a family, of a community, of a school, or of a church, in a face-to-face way. If he conforms, because of requirement, his moralities are of low grade. If he square his conduct with that approved by his social groups, because of principles involved, his moralities are of high grade. In any case, morality is conduct and not just what one believes. The best morality is exhibited when there is presented to one a choice and when the individual chooses on basis of the better motive. One who continually chooses the better of alternatives will certainly grow in strength of moral character. Choice of the better alternative is the fundamental element of morality. It is the choice to master one's own desires and passions for the welfare of other persons.

Negatively defined, moral character is the *choice to avoid* conduct not approved by one's social groups. Positively defined, it is the deliberate choice to engage in such behavior as is approved by one's social groups,

to do such work as will really earn one's keep in the social groups in which he "lives, moves and has his being." Actively defined, moral character is the deliberate choice to go beyond the mere maintenance of oneself and to try to contribute something to the welfare of other people. This contribution is made through efforts to make other people happier, to relieve their distress, to minister to their needs,—all through the motive of service, with no expectation of a material reward. It is good neighborliness in all its phases. It is the *deliberate choice to serve others*. This is Christian civilization in the concrete.

2. Importance of moral training. "Character building is the most important function of the school," says Strayer in *The Teaching Process*. Many others have maintained, rightly, that moral training is certainly as important as training in arithmetic, language and the like. While many try to dodge the task by advocating a moral training made an incidental feature of other trainings, it is worth while to note that the advocacy to make arithmetic training, and language training, and spelling training, and writing training incidental to other school work has never been taken very seriously. In fact, we accomplish no important training by an incidental procedure. Hit-and-miss methods will not achieve in a child's life any sort of dependable education, be it physical, cultural, *moral*, vocational, recreational, or religious. Notwithstanding the fact that moral education, like other general types, results slowly, if such virtues as courtesy, politeness, honesty, temperance, kindness, truthfulness, and the like, be worth while, it is as necessary to plan definitely a moral education program as it is to plan for the other types of education. Hit-and-miss methods function in a child's contact with his community, at play, at the store, at the

postoffice, and elsewhere in his unorganized life. The results may be moral training or immoral training. The home, the church, *the school*, must employ for moral education methods found efficient in other types of education, rather than depend upon purely incidental methods.

3. **Manners, morals, religion.** In human association there have come to be evolved a set of ways of acting in the presence of others which is called “good manners.” Now, one cannot know on the basis of instincts what constitute “good manners.” He must be taught what they are. In a cultured home, a child is so taught by his parents. In view of the fact that many children do not come from cultured homes, the school must supply the deficiency and teach good manners as:

How to introduce or be introduced;

For a man, to remove his hat in the presence of ladies;

To rise, when others enter the room;

To give half-way on street or sidewalk;

Not to break in when others are talking;

To listen attentively when another talks to one;

Having shoes shined;

Brushing clothes;

How to use knife and fork,

Not complaining about food;

Using napkin;

Asking to be excused when leaving table;

Looking at people in the eye, when talking;

Not making fun of people in less fortunate circumstances, etc., etc.

All these and many others need to be taught; the reasons back of them need to be given; and provision for practice of them should be made.

As to what to attempt to teach in morals, there have

been several moral codes set up. A "children's code of morals" was submitted in 1918 by William J. Hutchins to the National Institution of Moral Instruction.¹ It included:

Health;

Self-control (tongue, temper, thoughts);

Self-reliance;

Reliability;

Clean play (not playing for keeps, treating opponent with courtesy, congratulating winner, being a good loser);

Duty (what I ought to do);

Workmanship (interest in work; doing right thing in right way; no envy of others);

Team work;

Kindness (thoughts, speech, acts);

Loyalty (to family, school, town, state, country, humanity).

It is surprising that *courtesy, a feeling and a showing of consideration for others*, should have been omitted. Modern life is in such dire need of a general diffusion of this virtue, to serve as oil in the delicate machinery of social life, that it must be inculcated. Positive acts of discourtesy are so frequent in business life, in the home, on the road and street, and elsewhere, that their prevention must be sought in the schools.

Another list by John J. Maddox² contained a more elaborate and more detailed set of moral acts to be taught. Samples from it are as follows:

Appreciation by children of their parents' services;

Obedience to parents and teachers;

Acts of kindness to them;

Punctuality;

¹ Donor's Library on Character Education, Vol. I, p. 225.

² Donor's Library on Character Education, Vol. I, p. 228.

- Truthfulness;
- Dependability;
- Cleanliness;
- Gratitude;
- Entertainment;
- Keeping down one's expenses;
- Earning some of one's expenses;
- Kindness to animals;
- Respect to janitors and other hired help at home and school;
- Respect for rights of other children in schoolroom and on playground;
- Having an understanding of rules of games;
- Not taking improper advantage of others;
- Being a generous winner, or a good loser; congratulating winner;
- Inviting other children to play;
- Care of school property;
- Exercising “safety first”;
- Respect and kindness to older people;
- Considering one's own good name;
- Proper behavior in public places;
- Not trespassing others' property, etc., etc.

It is the task of the school to supplement the work of the home that the rising generation may acquire these and other moral virtues the sum total of all which constitute one's *moral character*.

There has been a situation which practically precluded religious training. This has been due to an absolute separation of church and state, to the presence of many score religious denominations in this country, and to the inability to see religion as life and not as theology. Religious education, too, is a necessary component of general education. Teachers should be willing to aid the churches in giving the children a religious

education. In addition to the work done in the churches, it is possible to re-inforce the work of the churches and synagogues without the slightest reference to denominational differences. In states in which the reading of the Bible is not forbidden, the children can learn the great stories of this Book, memorize certain choice passages, as Psalms, Beatitudes, and the like. They can be taught to sing and to know from memory many classic church hymns. All this serves as an apperceptive basis for the work of the church and Sunday School.

When it is recognized that there are "three levels of conduct,"¹ namely, the *instinctive*, the *social* and the *personal*, it helps to give our thoughts direction in this matter. Conduct, based on the instinctive tendencies, such as feeding, drinking, sensing, migration, attending, walking, acquiring, possessing, collecting, competing, angry behavior, imitating, and the like, is below the plane of *choice* and is *unmoral*, rather than *moral* conduct.

Conduct, based on conformity to customs of social groups in face-to-face relations, is social or *moral*. It is an exercise of *choice*, but only because it is satisfying to conform to practices prevalent in one's community. While some social customs are deëducational, yet life in a society is securer when its mode of behavior is approved by the dominant social interests of one's environment. Social advancement is made by individual ideals within a group, or by the influence of a social ideal coming from without. The acquisition of self-control, by practice of prevalent social or moral virtues, is *moral* conduct of the conforming kind, and is vastly superior to instinctive conduct.

Conduct is on its highest level when the individual cuts loose from instinctive impulses, disregards the de-

¹ Betts, G. H.: *Social Principles of Education*, p. 181.

mands of one's social group, and makes his *choice* of the thing to do solely upon the basis of his own principles and ideals—doing the thing for no other reason than *because it is right*. You can hear such a person say,

“I'd rather stand alone in conscious pride
Than err with millions on my side.”

This is conduct on the personal, reflective plane. It is higher than the merely moral plane. Such a devotion and tenacity to one's principles and ideals is one's religion, whether they be good or bad, whether his religion be good or bad. What one believes in from the bottom of his heart and squares his conduct by, regardless of the consequences, is his religion. “Out of the heart are the issues of life.” Herein lies a teacher's opportunity to lead her pupils into an appreciation of the things that be of God, into a love for the ideals and principles that have actuated people into lives of service throughout the ages. In leading a child to adopt some of these ideals and principles as his own, he builds a foundation for a *personal, reflective choice* of action, which is the highest type of morality, and indeed, the religion of life.

4. **Principles of moral education.** The principles here are exactly those that prevail in any other education. They are as follows:

a. **The Law of Effect.** This law involves the satisfyingness, the comfort, the pleasure, the joy that accompany or follow an experience. It also includes the satisfyingness of its anticipation, the appreciation of its ideal presentation, to the end of establishing a desire for performance. It is a teacher's opportunity in teaching so to appeal to a child's better nature that lines of desirable moral conduct shall be attractive. Many children, because of impressions for good received from

their teachers, become so changed in conduct that it becomes noticeable to parents and friends. It is such an impelling impression as to find voluntary expression immediately in everyday life. A teacher had been talking to her children one day about the hard work that their parents were performing in earning a living for the children and in other ways. Thus she led them on to a larger appreciation of what their parents were doing for them, and got them to discussing ways of lightening their parents' burdens. That evening at home a large proportion of these children offered their services to their parents, in ways not customary, without waiting to be told by them what to do. Another teacher, because of a splendid presentation of the bird problem, the values of birds and the treatment accorded them, so planted a desire in their hearts to treat the birds better that, during the snows that winter, food was put out for the birds, and in the spring bird boxes were erected for nesting, throughout the community. All this is moral conduct, induced by an attractively presented principle of right dealing. Teaching that results in making right living *satisfying* is a theoretical aspect of moral training that we cannot afford to overlook. The author has no more patience with impractical theorizing about how to live than with merely incidental moral training. On the other hand, unintelligent practice is ineffectual in producing the principles that constitute moral character. It is a combination of theory with practice, of impressions with expression, that counts. The point of the Law of Effect is that children must be led to know and to feel the satisfyingness of right conduct, either as an accompaniment or as a consequent. The negative side of the Law is that of discomfort and punishment that accompanies or follows wrong conduct.

b. **The Law of Exercise.** This Law implies use, practice, expression, drill, exercise. It implies the learning of good conduct through properly guided activity. It means that the *use* of certain behavior strengthens that behavior, whether good or bad, and that *disuse* of that behavior weakens it. It means that impression alone, however good, is soon lost without expression. Provision must be made for the application and doing of what is taught. “Whosoever *doeth* my will shall learn of the doctrine.” Lead children to learn right living through doing righteousness. Much of the effects of moral and religious teaching is totally lost, because of the lack of provision and opportunity for giving immediate *expression* to the *impressions* received. Aspire to organize and direct your school indoors and on the playgrounds so that the children will be continually *exercising* themselves in right conduct.

c. **Mental set.** Children who read much in the way of good literature, graded down to their ability to read, enjoyable to them, gradually have developed a “mind set” favorable to the dominant moral tone running through the books. Their associations with the Sunday School and the Church, the fundamental lessons therein learned, the consolidated and deepened impressions therein made, combine to produce such a mental set. The sum total of these mental sets may be called their philosophy of life. Let this be so carefully formed—because slowly formed—that it may be forever dependable.

d. **Guidance.** Children are not pieces of plastic clay which you may take and mold into any result desired. Yet, within the limits of their nature, they can be guided by wise parents and wise teachers far toward the goal of what is desired for these children. It is easy for some children and hard for others to be the bene-

ficiaries of such adult guidance in the direction of good life. Yet, without such guidance, moral life and achievement by them will be purely a hit-and-miss process. The responsibility is on the parents and teachers. One cannot avoid it. Children will be guided into the realm of good citizenship by those who know the way. If left to themselves, the chances are that the forces of evil will guide them away from good citizenship. Refuse to believe that children may possibly achieve morality and good citizenship by the incidental, or accidental, method. Guidance by those who know is essential. Let the children be *guided* through personal talks with them, public upholding of the ideals of the good life, and worthy living of righteousness before them.

e. **The shared life.** This is morality. It is democracy. It is Christian civilization. If you have as many exercises as possible, involving the sharing of services for the good of all, not only is the Law of Exercise applied, but the doctrine of the good life is at the same time learned. When there is any sort of project, involving coöperative activity by the pupils, the opportunity for experiencing the shared life is at hand. One has it in the ball teams, in the plays for public presentation and in the children's services to one another. Intellectual projects in classwork, if properly guided, afford wonderful opportunity for the shared life. If the children may be led to appreciate the principle of the continuity of life; if they can come to value highly that those who have gone on before us are sharing their life with us who come after them,—the principle of *serial sharing*; if the children can but understand that we receive freely from the past and must, therefore, in appreciation pass on freely to the future; then, we are building for a broad and enduring morality. Constructive morality is a sharing of values of life, whether we

do it mutually with others face to face, or whether we do it serially by passing on to others ahead of us the great spiritual blessings of those who have preceded us.

5. Methods of moral training.

a. Direct.

1) *Rules.* These are condemned by many as being theoretical, formalistic and useless. Yet the human race has not found it possible to get on without rules in language, hygiene, mathematics, science and other directions of endeavor. The only cause for pause here is in method of the derivation of these rules and in the way of their application. To offer to get along without rules in moral training is to offer excuse, not reason, for its neglect.

2) *Knowledge vs. morality.* To know morality is not the same as to live it. Children may be guided into *knowing what is right and true*; but they must be guided into a satisfactory *doing of what is right and true*. Knowing and doing are neither identical nor synonymous.

3) *Devotional exercises.*

a) Such exercises should be what their name implies, —devotional. They are better conducted when the children themselves have a large place in them. They should be as carefully planned as any other feature of the day's program. The reading of the Scripture, the singing of sacred songs, the telling of Bible stories, the recitation of Bible selections, should be neither haphazard nor hurried. Devotional poems, psalms, flag salutes, are all properly in place here.

b) *Pupil participation.* The best such exercises the author has ever witnessed were in a one-teacher school. Readings, song-leading, the leading of the Lord's Prayer, recitations, and the like, were all done by pupils previously appointed and trained for that exercise.

c) *Discussion*. If the method of *right doing* be thrown open to be discussed in recitation period, and if the teacher carefully guide such discussion, it is a great aid in developing moral principles. However, the great, deep principles of life are not properly subjects for discussion by children, until the children shall have gained sufficient understanding and experience to make discussion of them intelligent.

d) *Much music*. Good singing in sufficient amount is very potent in its effect upon those who make up the group. Cromwell's army was thought to be invincible, because of the great singing by his soldiers.

4) *Looking for virtues*. It is a higher and more difficult level of intelligence for one to find likenesses than it is to find unlikenesses. It is easier to find contrasts than to find similarities; to criticize adversely than to criticize favorably; to find faults than to find virtues. The ability to find virtues, which are closer approximations to truth, must come as the result of much guidance, stimulation and practice. Any fool can see the ugliness of the rough and natural stone; only the great sculptor can look down beneath the rough exterior and see the angel which will be there when the roughness and ugliness are chiselled off. Lead children to look in books, in nature, in people, for the good, the true and the beautiful.

b. *Indirect*. This total method would never tell a child anything right to do. It would give him no rules or directions by which to live. It would leave a child to imbibe, to absorb, to learn incidentally.

1) The *curriculum* would be filled with the stories of heroes and good people. The ideals of life would be exalted, without moralizing. If a child gets the point incidentally, all right and well. He thinks, he sees, he hears, he draws his own conclusions. He may conclude

that the villain is always punished in the long run, or he may conclude that the villain, if he had been wiser, could have escaped easily.

2) *Suggestions*, but not directions or requirements, are made. Sometimes, they work out in conduct; sometimes they do not. If a child is capable of carrying out a suggestion, and if it is *satisfying* to carry it out, it goes over into activity, and not otherwise. Herein is one of the values of the teacher's personality.

3) The *school itself* is said to be a teacher of morality, by virtue of children's living the life of pupils at school. They imitate each other, and imitate the teacher, when they can and when such imitation is satisfying. Moral values are certainly implicit in well-directed school life. They are by-products of this life; but that brings us back to 1) and 2) of direct methods.

4) *Playgrounds*. Some one said, “A man who cannot get on well with his neighbors never played baseball.” It has been estimated that, after establishing public playgrounds in a city, fifty percent of the nearby juvenile delinquency is eliminated. The necessity of give-and-take, fair play, honesty, honor, and other virtues of moral living makes possible a very certain application of the Laws of Effect and Exercise.

5) *Leaders*. In all children's groups there are those who are natural-born leaders. These soon emerge as leaders. Pay great attention to them. Win them to you and to right doing; the others fall in after them with ease. It pays to cultivate the children's leaders.

6) *Right thinking*. “Whatsoever things are true, whatsoever things are honest, whatsoever things are just, whatsoever things are pure, whatsoever things are lovely, whatsoever things are of good report; if there be any virtue, if there be any praise, *think* on these things.” The story of the Great Stone Face illustrates

the same principle. One tends to become that which one *thinks*. If the stimuli to thought are high and noble, one's character tends to be formed in that direction. If they are low and mean, one's character tends in that direction. Let the children read good books, see masterpieces in art, hear masterpieces in music, and learn the masterpieces in life through religion—let them *think* continuously on such things and the end-product will not be disappointing.

7) *Scouts*. Probably one of the best methods of indirect moral teaching is in the Scout organization. One might well wish that all boys could have the opportunity of membership in this great organization. The only great drawback to it is the lack of another similar organization into which children may be promoted when they have outgrown the Scouts. Can you make some use of the principles of this organization in your school life?

8) *Catharsis*. This refers to that vile doctrine that everyone must "sow his wild oats" to get them out of his system. It would maintain on the one hand, that for a child to lie, cheat, steal, bully in childhood and youth will serve to vaccinate him against it in adult life. It would maintain, on the other hand, that not participation in, but contemplation of, wrong-doing would make a child immune from immorality in the future. Be warned that, though many people hold to this *doctrine of Catharsis*, it is insidious, dangerous and false. In the true psychology of life, "Whatsoever a man sows, that shall he also reap." Activities or thoughts engaged in grow strong by *use*; they grow weak by *disuse*, whether such activities be good or evil. Do not permit children to read books of crime and see moving pictures showing how criminals commit their crimes. Such only acquaints them with the methods of crime; it does not

immunize them against similar evil in their own lives.

6. **Errors in moral training.** The first and foremost error is to *neglect it*. Many do so to their subsequent sorrow. It is an error to *tempt to dishonesty*. For example, one does not want the children to cheat on examination. Help them against it by using two examinations, dividing the class into evens and odds, as they sit, and letting the evens do one test and the odds do the other. Thus the ones next to each other are doing different questions. It is an error to *scold* and *nag* a child, when he has confessed and told the truth, thus encouraging him to lie. It is an error to *neglect supervising the playground*. Be there and forestall nearly all playground offenses. Do not *expect perfection at once*. Show trust and confidence in the children, but they still need much help. Do not *wink at wrongdoing*. "Almost right is always wrong." Little mean acts become cumulative and sooner or later break out in great seriousness. It would be an error to *expect too much from formal training*. One should have it, but should have much more *doing*. A good deed done is a more potent former of moral character than the learning of a rule of conduct. Use both. Let the aim be twofold: to achieve moral excellences and to avoid moral delinquencies.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. What is morality?
2. How important is it?
3. Distinguish manners, morals, religion.
 - a. What are some good manners that are teachable?
 - b. What items of a moral code ought to be woven into moral character?
 - c. To what extent is religious (not sectarian) education possible in public schools?
 - d. Distinguish three levels of conduct.
4. Take each principle of moral education and state it in a carefully worded sentence (write it out).
 - a. What other principles are usable?
5. Distinguish between direct and indirect methods or moral training.
 - a. Give arguments favoring each method.
 - b. Give examples of the direct method. Illustrate each.
 - c. Give examples of the indirect method. Illustrate each.
 - d. How make devotional exercises mean most for the development of moral attitudes and ideals?
 - e. Take each indirect method enumerated and show how it makes any contribution to moral training.
 - f. How can you direct children to *right thinking*?
 - g. Criticize the doctrine of Catharsis.
6. What do you consider the chief errors in moral training?

CHAPTER XXVI

“CARRYING ON” THE SCHOOL—5

A. The School as a Community Center

1. Public programs.

a. **Commencement.** Nearly all high schools and many elementary schools have at the close of the session such a combination of exercises as constitute “commencement.” These are to be encouraged. They, if properly managed, bring the parents together and cause them to concentrate their minds upon the “darling enterprise” of the community.

The *time* of holding it should be chosen with reference to the convenience of most people living in the community. If they cannot easily attend in day, let such exercises be held at night.

Exhibits of work, not only of drawing and other handwork, but of spelling, geography, arithmetic and other work, are in place. Have exhibits of the best of all pupils, so that their parents may in their silence check up the character of work done by their children.

The *character of exercises* will vary with the type of school. Graduation from elementary school or from high school is typical. Other programs of recitation, declamation, debate, song, plays, drills, etc., are in place.

In Chapter XXI, division 5, item *n*, advice is given how to protect your public exercises from being disturbed by rowdy persons. Sometimes admission fees are charged to raise money to pay expenses of commencement.

b. **Public days.** *Parents' days* are useful at times during the year. At such times the parents are invited to visit the school one afternoon. They may visit the rooms in which their children are and may see how the work is done. Exhibits of work are provided. Possibly, a program of recitations, songs, drills, and the like, is rendered. A public speaker may also be had. All such days serve to bring the school and home closer together.

Arbor days, health days, bird days, are observed in some communities and states. They may be had in any community. In such case, a program appropriate to the day, entertaining and instructional, is in place.

Other days, such as *Columbus Day, Thanksgiving Day, Armistice Day, Washington's Birthday*, are frequently celebrated with appropriate programs by the children and by an appropriate address by a public speaker.

c. **Lyceums, lectures, addresses, plays, motion pictures.** The opportunity for these is dependent upon the lack of provision for them by other agencies in the community. The first three sorts of public performance at the hands of good, well-qualified persons, serve to heighten the ideals of the people and to make a splendid contribution to the aesthetic and idealistic side of life. A motion picture machine in the school makes it possible to use educational films for purposes of instruction both to children and to adults. Plays by such artists as the Coburn Players, the Devereux Players, the Coffey-Miller Players, furnish a rare opportunity to become acquainted with real dramatic art.

d. **Entertainments.** These are most frequently given in school at night for such purposes of raising money for some item of school improvement as getting a library, putting more books into the library, getting a labora-

tory, the purchase of certain needed equipment, and the like. Admission fees are charged. These entertainments have a certain socializing value to both performers and audience, as well as a practical value for money-raising. The program, however, should be of high order. They should never be permitted to degenerate into negro minstrels and low-order carnivals. The need to raise money for the school does not justify the use of the school property to exhibit anything which is not, at the same time, also *educational*. Keep your entertainments on a high plane. If at least one child from every family may be on the program, a big crowd will be present. A man will go farther to hear or see his own child perform publicly than he would to hear the President of the United States speak.

The character of the program for an entertainment is important. Let it include an exhibition of a variety of exercises. Let the parts be well rehearsed many times. The more and the harder the rehearsals, the more surely everything will go off all right. Providing for dressing, in keeping with the parts performed by the children, must not be made so expensive as to be burdensome to parents. The selection of children must be carefully made, so that no parent can complain that the selection was either partisan or sectarian. Again, a good way is to try to use one child from every family from which the group comes to make up the school or the grade giving the entertainment. The program may include recitations, drills, orations, declamations, songs, marches, and the like.

e. **School fairs.** In some communities school fairs are held in the fall. Not only do children exhibit their work, but also the adults of the community also come and exhibit the products of their industries. Things of a fine sort made at home, produced on the farm, or

wrought out in the shop, are placed on exhibit. Lunch may be had on the school grounds. There may be exercises by the children. An address may be made by some person invited for the purpose. All such efforts to make the school the real center of the community help people understand and appreciate this changing and enlarging conception of education.

f. Friday afternoons. In the old-time school on alternate Friday afternoons "speeches" were in order by all the children. Recitation and declamation of pieces were required. Absence on that day did not permanently excuse. That type of exercise is probably better performed in connection with the regular program, in which recitations, plays, stories and other public speech, have a more natural setting. In such cases, however, the teacher must see that all children have opportunity for exercise in public speech.

2. Opportunities for vocational specialists. We should not lose sight of the opportunities of educational significance to be had through demonstration agents, editors, gardeners, farmers, merchants, bankers, lawyers, dentists, physicians, judges, ministers, telegraphers, telephone men, blacksmiths, carpenters, mechanics, architects, and others. Let them be invited one at a time to address the school on the most salient features of their vocations. The effects of such addresses make for culture of a broader sort than can be given by the teacher alone.

3. Parent-teacher associations, school leagues, improvement associations. Such organizations of teachers and parents are effective in many schools. *Beginning teachers* should be regular and prompt at all such meetings. They should undertake to render, as best they can, such features of the program as may be assigned to them. They may actually take the initiative

and organize such an association. One beginning teacher organized a school league of the mothers of the children taught. She was the directing force back of the league; but she had them elect other women to all the offices. Committees were appointed. The mothers had little education. So, if a woman was put on the program, the teacher would help her prepare her part, sometimes even writing her speech for her. If a matter was assigned to this committee, this teacher would invite the committee to meet with her for discussion. She never tried to dictate the report, but often the members of the committee were just hungering for some one who knew to tell them what to report. One can get more work done if he or she stay behind the scenes and let others wear the honors of office.

4. **The library.** Not only should there be in each schoolroom a small library of books suitable to the age and abilities of the children, but there should also be a larger school library, having books for older pupils and also for adults. One of the great needs of the times is a large acquaintance with good books as an antidote to the effects of vicious and salacious literature so abundant on many news-stands. The books for an educational library should be selected by people who know the books for that purpose. Many people want to "give" to the school library books which they merely want to get off their own shelves for something better. Do not accept such books, unless they have been approved by your committee. The school must be an agency of education, not only for children, but also for adults in the larger way. The money for a library and for its upkeep is sometimes available from public sources; sometimes it must be raised by entertainments or by subscriptions.

The author is convinced that the best way to develop

a taste for good literature is to begin in early childhood, before any other sort of literary taste is established. Let there be in each classroom a small library of about fifty or more books, classic and scientific in character, but written in sufficiently simple language to be read with ease by the children in that room. Encourage the children to work hard and hasten through with their regular study so as to have some time to read the library books. In a half-hour once a week reserved for stories each child could stand up and tell the other children the chief things he had read. This aids in acquiring facility in the correct use of language, as found in such books.

Many book publishers have ready lists of books suitable for supplementary library use for the several and separate grades; and will be glad to furnish such lists upon request.

5. **Thrift.** Most people seem to know very little about saving any portion of their income toward getting started in business, getting an education, purchasing a home or anything else. John D. Rockefeller was once a poor boy. One day, when he was about sixteen years of age, while working in the field, he said to himself, "If ever I get ahead, I must make money work for me." Immediately he began to *save* every penny he could. He invested wisely. Today he is one of the world's wealthiest men. Could you organize a "Thrift Club," composed of all the children who can save any sum, if but a few pennies, with a view to getting these children to become patrons of the savings bank. The bank will furnish you the arguments for a savings account and a list of useful purposes to which it can be applied in later years.

6. **School gardens.** Some schools are so situated that splendid gardens are possible. One teacher turned

one end of a large playground, a rich spot, into such a garden. The men members of the school league furnished a wire fence for it; one man plowed it up. The garden was divided up into plots about six by ten feet each. Two children were assigned a plot. Each two decided what to grow on their plot. Some had corn, others onions, others beans, others cabbage, others flowers, others carrots, and so on. The children studied indoors from a good book on horticulture good methods of preparing the soil, fertilizing and cultivating. The garden was beautiful at commencement time. The ladies of the school league took charge of it at school close and saw to the continued cultivation. As the vegetables came on, those ladies canned them and kept them for use in the teachers' home next year. School gardens are not useless; they are useful. They are another means of a more liberal education and a broader culture.

7. Home projects. If children may be encouraged to carry on at home projects in which they are interested, as the raising of pigs, calves or poultry; as the growing of tomatoes or other vegetables; as the working out of any other project of industry in woodwork, sewing, cooking, and the like, the school may become the agency of *supervision of such extra-school educational activities.*

8. Schools for adults are becoming ever more in place. No one is too old to learn. A useful conception of education is that of *growth*. Opportunity to learn should never be denied people on account of age or any other condition. Such schools are called "night schools," or "moonlight schools," or "extension schools." Let them be encouraged. The schoolhouses stand idle 17 hours out of 24 per day for 200 days. They stand idle throughout the whole 24 hours **each**

day in vacation. The more time such buildings can be used for educational purposes the greater the dividends from the investment in the school plant. The time will come when school plants will be open for educational purposes every day in the year and for all the people of the community who need an extension of their education. Some adults have never learned to read and write. Others feel the need for *extending* the meager education which they have received.

9. **Children's clubs.** The schoolhouse may well be the meeting place, under adult guidance and leadership, of most of such clubs.

a. **Boy Scouts.** If there is not one in your community, try to get one organized. Sometimes a minister, or other influential man, can be induced to become its leader.

b. **Individual clubs.** These concern the actual production of products. They afford elementary vocational insight and skill. They furnish incentives to other educational work. They help unite school and home. They make for social training, too. Some types of such clubs are sewing clubs, cooking clubs, tomato clubs, poultry clubs, "baby beef" clubs, corn clubs, dairy clubs, potato clubs, garden clubs. To function successfully they must be under the guidance of wise, capable, interested and sympathetic adult leadership. The teacher has not the time to manage many, or even any, such clubs. If she can get one adult person to head one such club, and another to head another, she will have multiplied herself by so much. Such clubs may well be authorized and the leader approved by the parent-teacher association or other adult organization. Let all such clubs, meeting regularly at the schoolhouse, become as other links between the school and the home. It is not well to organize more than one club at a time. Get one going;

then proceed to another. Children's membership may well be confined to one club at a time, during one school session. If the same children belong to several at a time, they will often neglect their schoolwork.

Decide what clubs you will try to have. Get the organization material. See whom you can get for members. Consult with other leading adults concerning these new movements. Let them help you decide what contests may be had and what prizes are to be offered. Let these clubs be so carefully and fairly conducted as to be a method of even more closely uniting, never dividing, the community.

10. **Sunday Schools.** In some communities community Sunday Schools are held in the school buildings; teachers are frequently the leaders and superintendents and teachers in such Sunday Schools. Whenever that is the case, the permission of the school board or of the superintendent should first be had to use the school building for that purpose. Such teaching in the public school building should be non-sectarian and non-political. The people of the whole community thus come together without regard to denomination or political party and unite in an effort to learn more about the higher ways of life. Some rather wonderful results have come from such community efforts, when conducted on a high plane of coöperation.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. Determine what programs you ought to have at commencement for your type of school. What should be the content of each program?
2. What public days would you have? What sorts of programs or exhibits would you have in each?
3. How advisable is it in your school to have lyceums, lectures, addresses, plays, motion pictures? Which? How often?
4. Give your criticism favorable and unfavorable to school fairs, entertainments, Friday afternoon programs, each one separately. How get good attendance? How avoid criticism of favoritism? How make sure your program will go off well?
5. What do you think of having a series of talks by vocational specialists?
6. What adult organizations are possible in your school? How organized?
7. Do you have a library? For the school? In your classroom? How can you make it mean most for most children?
8. What can be done to encourage thrift among the children? Give ways and methods.
9. Is a school garden possible at your school? If so, how can it be made most educational to most children? How keep it going after school closes?
10. What extra-school educational activities can be supervised from your school? How?
11. What children's clubs are feasible in your school? How get them? How guide them? How keep them going?
12. Is Sunday School feasible in your school building? Why? If so, how have it conducted?

CHAPTER XXVII

"CARRYING ON" THE SCHOOL—6

The Teacher's Relationships

1. To self.

a. Many teachers have grown up with undue emphasis upon *rights*. Such persons are sensitive, are looking for slights, or have "chips on the shoulder" to be knocked off by someone. Such persons had best change the point of emphasis from rights to self over to duties to others. The teachers' rights and authorities are determined by law, or by rules and regulations. So the teacher may seldom worry about not obtaining his or her rights as per the law.

Teachers come to be employed by virtue of having friends who recommend and endorse them. A decent respect for such endorsements would lead a teacher to inquire how she or he may make good and not embarrass the endorsers.

The teacher is during school hours *in loco parentis*. He or she stands in the place of parents. It is a high, holy and responsible position. The beginning teacher by meditation, reflection and prayer daily should try to measure up to the requirements of so lofty a responsibility. This high responsibility carries with it the parental authority to administer reasonable punishment to children for disobedience while they are under the teacher's control.

b. *Habits*. The true teacher will be careful as to his or her habits. One's methods of teaching continue to

operate twenty-four hours of the day and seven days of the week. The way one lives, the habits exhibited, influence the *changing* of children either *for the better*, or for the worse, whether one is conscious of the influence thus exerted or not. A young man teacher who spends all his nights out, instead of spending them in his room, in preparation for his next day's classes, is a candidate for non-election for next year. The young woman teacher who receives company every night, or who, flaunting the sensibilities of the community, stays out late at night unchaperoned in automobile rides with young men, need not be surprised, if she becomes the center of undesirable community gossip, or if the board decides to make a change at the end of the year. There are many communities in which public dancing and card parties are taboo. Young people, regardless of their own attitudes with respect to these questionable amusements, if they find that the people of their community are not favorable to them, should decline pointblank to participate in those amusements. Careful young people, who desire so to participate, will first find out what are the community's attitudes toward these amusements and will respect these attitudes without question or quibbling. A person who is unwilling to sacrifice some desires for the real educational good of boys and girls will never get very high in the educational profession. Our model, the Great Teacher, sacrificed His all, even to His life by death upon the cross, for His pupils, who include you and me. Are we worthy to "follow in His train"?

The habits of neatness of person and dress, the way one cares for his person, the habits of courtesy, the correctness of language used, the good manners exhibited at the table and elsewhere, the control of one's voice, the manner of conversation, are all methods of teach-

ing; do not be deceived about that. You are teaching all the time, whether you realize it or not.

c. The care of *health* is essential to keep one fit. Even this is a part of the unconscious method of teaching. The teacher's diet, regular exercise and recreation all require thought that health may be conserved. Exercise may be had in children's games, in tennis with others, through walks in the open air, and the like. Not only exercise, but recreation, must be provided for. Often both may be had at once, as through games or visiting. Provision for eight full hours of sleep is necessary. Make living intelligent.

Orderliness in the schoolroom is a duty to the teacher's self, as well as to others. The careful routinizing of minor details of schoolroom procedure and the strict but kindly disciplining of children are thus to be included.

d. The teacher's continued *growth* must be provided for. Not only will the future school have “a well trained teacher in every classroom,” but every teacher is to be “a continuously growing teacher.” This will be done by reading educational journals and professional books; by doing some work each year as through an extension class or in summer school, to earn additional credit, and the like. Someone has said, “I want teachers who are going somewhere.”

e. In order to make proper provision for all the essentials of a balanced life of a teacher, he or she will do well to *budget the time*. Not only should the school day be budgeted by means of the daily schedule of recitations, but the whole twenty-four hours should be so budgeted right through the week. Work it out as a judgment factor. Then make it a routine factor right through the day. Thus one can make provision, not only for school work, but for exercise, recreation.

growth, visiting and liberal culture. Even fifteen minutes a day devoted to the reading of good literature will soon begin to tell for one's culture. Many of the world's best educated men have got ahead, not by virtue of superior heredity or superior opportunity; they merely conserved and used the stray minutes of the day of carefully budgeted time to read and learn. "Go thou and do likewise."

2. To superintendents, supervisors, and principals.

If a teacher accepts a position in a certain county or city school system, it becomes that teacher to give the utmost loyalty and support to his or her superior officers. The teacher should attend willingly all meetings, called by these officers and, if called on, do his or her best in regard to the program of such meeting. Let *coöperation* with superior officers be cordial, *obedience* unquestioned and *loyalty* intelligent. Teachers should not criticize adversely their superior officers to people outside and remain in the system. Let whatever criticism or suggestions one makes be made directly to the one criticized and not to others. It ill becomes teachers to get together and form a mutual sympathy society, all proceeding to "lay out" their superior officers. If you must criticize them to others adversely, resign and get out; then you can let your criticism flow. It is also disloyal for teachers to say to children that they disagree with the authorities. Let *coöperation* with, and loyalty and obedience to, your superior officers be your watchwords.

All reports called for should be made promptly and all records neatly and accurately kept. *Records and reports* are designed to convey accurate information and to lead to school betterment. The record of attendance is usually made in a register. Reports of enrollment, number belonging and attendance, as well as of progress

and promotions, are necessary. Reports to parents, indicating the character of work done in the several subjects by their children, and showing their type of conduct, are sent out monthly or less frequently. These should be made as honestly and accurately as possible. If records and reports are to be commended, they must be cared for regularly, without getting behind.

3. To the school board. If you have made application to several boards, take note that, when you shall have accepted a position with one of them, you should immediately withdraw your applications from all the rest. This keeps the other boards from wasting time, offering you other positions. When you have accepted a position, you are morally bound to keep it, unless the board by official action release you from the obligation. It is morally wrong and positively dishonest for a teacher to accept a position from a board and then, if offered by another board a somewhat more desirable position, to write the former board and say that he or she cannot come. If you want to get released from the former position, write a decent and honorable resignation, asking for such a release, but assuring the former board that you will not fail to come in case of their inability to get another teacher. It is better to lose a few dollars than to be dishonest about a contract. Be true to your promises. “Swear to your own hurt and change not.” Often school boards can get another teacher and will be glad to release you when you proceed in an honorable way; but do not leave them without a teacher, merely because you would like to accept another position. If you are honest with school boards and give them good service, you can reasonably be sure of their endorsements for higher positions. You will also have the approval of your own conscience.

The teacher is the educational leader of the com-

munity. It is the teacher's opportunity and duty to maintain the good name of the school, to render excellent service, to hold the school board in the highest respect, to conduct himself or herself in such a way as not to embarrass the board, to represent the board in a congenial way before the people. The good teacher is punctual, studious and enthusiastic. While the board pays the teacher a salary, yet the essential elements of a teacher's service which make up the difference between success and failure as a teacher are never stated and cannot be stated in a contract; they are spiritual in quality; they are always an unremunerated service; they cannot be measured or paid for. The good teacher does much more than he is paid for. He does more than the contract calls for. He does even more than his mere duty. Thus only does one's vocation reach the plane of the professional.

4. **To parents.** A teacher never made too many good friends. One makes friends by being friendly. It is well, while not neglecting the task for which one is employed, to seek a large social intercourse with parents. Such becomes the foundation for future dealings with parents. Antagonisms should be avoided; yet, if there should arise difficulties, there should be no cringing. Parents should be visited by the teachers; they should be invited to visit the school. The teacher may explain plans to the parents. The parents may be taken into confidence, especially as it concerns their own children. Teachers should, in dealing with parents, seek something in the children, or in the parents, or in their vocation, or otherwise, which can be honestly commended. If a teacher can find out something thus to express a liking for, it paves the way for the matter in hand. *Frankness and honesty, combined with courtesy,* constitute a good policy for use in dealing with parents.

In visiting homes, learn to adapt yourself to the various sorts of homes. Make yourself as truly at home, and as congenial, in the homes of the lowly as in those of the wealthy and cultured. In their visits to you, either where you board or at your schoolroom, endeavor to make them feel at home. If things are not just right, or go wrong at school, do not apologize for it or make excuses to visitors. Be composed and deal with it properly, as if the visitors were not present.

Occasionally children do poorly or they misrepresent you at their homes. If in such cases the parents come to see you, receive them courteously and politely. If the parent be angry, try to get the conference put off a few minutes; say, “I’ll be at your service in a few minutes; just have a seat here in this rocker.” An angry person is usually tense and may lean slightly forward. A few minutes in an easy chair, *leaning back*, reduces the tension and softens anger. It is really the best alleviator of trouble between a previously angry parent and a teacher that can be found. In the meanwhile, if you can make a few pleasant remarks, still greater congeniality is produced.

5. To the community. The good teacher never confines his or her activity to the schoolroom, but ties it up with the whole educational job of the community. He or she seeks desirable friendships and establishes friendly terms with the people. A teacher who goes into a community on Monday morning and goes out on Friday afternoons, and who does not spend week-ends there, loses one of the best of educational opportunities. The good teacher stays there, participates in the club life, the religious life, the recreational life of the community. A teacher cannot teach just one thing at a time. Teaching goes on out of school hours, as well as in school hours. Some of the best lessons of life are uncon-

sciously taught in week-ends and at other times out of school.

6. To other teachers. The best attitude is one of friendliness, coöperation, congeniality and mutual helpfulness. Teachers should avoid adverse criticism of each other, either to one another, to people in the community, or to the children. They should rather get people to wait to learn "the other side." The author has known of two cases of teachers in adjoining rooms, who became so unfriendly as to refuse to speak to each other, and not to permit intercourse between the two rooms. Think of the undesirable gossip in the community that comes from such conduct by thoughtless teachers. Good teachers "get on" with other teachers.

It is helpful for teachers to visit each other and to observe the teaching, for suggestions to the visitor and friendly criticism to the visited. Education is a great, socially coöperative procedure for the best transmission of the best experience of the preceding generations on to the rising generation. No one knows all. "Everybody is wiser than anybody." One is educable to the extent that he can profit by experience of himself and of others.

7. To the pupils. The teacher is employed to help children realize their educational rights and learn their social duties. The teacher is not merely an authority over, but a friend to, every child. He or she will provide the best opportunity possible for children to learn. This will involve physical comfort, congenial atmosphere, and encouragement for growth of the best in childish character. While the teacher has the legal authority for reasonable punishment, that should be exceptional rather than the rule. While discipline should be firm and certain, it should be kindly and cultivating. Children's sensibilities should not be wounded

by their being compared unfairly and unjustly with others. They should never be called dullards, block-heads and the like. If necessary to punish them, school subjects or Bible assignments should never be used as means of punishment. The teacher's relationships with the children should be of congeniality so as to enable pupils not to feel out of place in the teacher's presence either at school or at home. Let pupils give you their friendly greeting, which you will recognize and return.

8. **To the profession.** A profession is characterized by the following:¹ An expert service; a social servanthship; a mastery of crises; conduct conforming to a code of ethics. The teacher may well ask: Is my attempt to master the constituent elements of my vocation such as will ultimately enable me to render really expert service? Is my attitude toward the work of such unselfish sort as to make me truly a *servant of the people*? Is my growth in the mastery of the elements of education, its subject-matter and its methods, in the full understanding of its aims, materials, resultants and functionings, tending to become such that I shall finally be a *true master of the educational crises* of children and adults? Does the whole conduct of my life seem to indicate its building upon the fundamental principles of social living and its conformance to a *code of ethics* growing out of such principles? Hence, our watchwords may well be *training* and *growth*.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. What do you consider the teacher's relationships to themselves:
 - a. In rights and duties; in conduct;
 - b. In habits;
 - c. In health;
 - d. In growth;
 - e. In time? Make out a budget of your time for twenty-four hours.
2. What is the proper relationship to be sustained to one's superior officers?
3. The same for the school board?
4. What should one's relationships to parents be? What good may come from visiting the homes of parents? What good may possibly come from having parents visit the school-room?
5. Outline the community relationships to be sustained by you.
6. What should be the relations of teachers to each other?
7. What should be the teacher's relations to the pupils in general?
8. What obligations do we owe to our profession?

CHAPTER XXVIII

BEAUTIFYING THE SCHOOL

THIS is no insignificant factor in the management of schools. The esthetic resultants of education have been too few and infrequent. As we identify education with life, the esthetic must have an enlarged and enlarging place. The teacher will begin here and now at school.

1. **The room.** The purposes of beautifying it are to make the room attractive, not only to visitors, who come infrequently, but also to the children who are there all the time; to help these children grow an intelligent appreciation of the artistic; to increase the probability of their ultimately having more esthetic home conditions. It is believed that beautiful and attractive school rooms make for a happier education and a consequent increase of the education sought by the pupils.

The author has visited school rooms having pictures altogether unsuitable for decorative or esthetic purposes. He has visited others having much less expensive pictures, but truly artistic in choice and arrangement. Before teachers waste money upon pictures, they should seek the service of persons or companies capable of wisely advising. Such companies as the Perry Picture Company and G. P. Brown have catalogues quite helpful for wise selections. Athearn's Church School includes lists of pictures by grades and departments, which are as helpful in selecting pictures for a public school as for a Sunday School. Let a few standard copies of masterpieces be selected and put up in your

room. Let the children learn the names of the pictures, and the names and something of the lives of the painters.

Many schoolrooms may be much improved by a very much greater degree of neatness and cleanliness. The selection of paper, color of window shades, and window curtains, help to make the room beautiful. The very arrangement of things in the school room and on the desk makes its contribution to the beauty of the room. Sometimes one has opportunity to serve for greater beauty of the room, when the interior is to be tinted up. Usually for light purposes a buff color is essential. At any rate, if one may aid in getting a color scheme which harmonizes throughout, it will help by so much.

The use of potted plants and flowers in the room affords opportunity for greater attractiveness of the room and for utility in nature study.

2. **The grounds.** Many a teacher finds the school grounds in very bad order. However, it is not good taste for her to criticize adversely her predecessor. Some grounds, too, are hard to get into an attractive condition. Two young women took charge of a small country school. They found both house and grounds in a very bad way. Having come to the community about five days before school was to open, and having found the school plant in very unattractive condition, they started right in themselves to get things in order. They did not work alone long. As one old man put it, "I have been living nigh onto this school more'n fifty year. This is the fust time we ever had any teachers what knowed thar business. As soon as them gals come and begun to clean up and showed they meant business, the rest of us got 'shamed of ourselves and turned in and helped 'em."

In beginning to shape up the school grounds, "be sure you are right, and then go ahead." Make haste slowly. Study the natural features of the ground. Have in mind the attainment of both beauty and utility. When the grounds shall have been cleaned up and put in order, there must be a plan to keep them so.

It is desirable that school grounds may include both grounds to play upon and grounds to look upon and enjoy. However, if there be not room for both, arrange first for the play ground. Opportunity for play should be the last, not the first, to be sacrificed. We may say that the best arrangement for grounds will include:

- a. Playgrounds;
- b. Lawns;
- c. Walks;
- d. Drives.

If walks and drives are to be had, let them be so placed as to be used for walks and drives. Too many curves and angles afford too great a temptation to cut across and spoil them. If there is room enough for playgrounds, and also for lawns not to be used for playgrounds, then, by all means, beautiful lawns, sown with grass suitable to the soil and climate, should be arranged.

Additional means of beautifying grounds will be found in the setting of plants and shrubbery. If there is in the community a landscape gardener, he or she can give excellent advice for thus beautifying the grounds. (At Statesville, North Carolina, Superintendent Matt D. Thompson, by gradual, careful selection of plants, shrubs, and trees, made the school grounds a regular park of beauty. Much sentiment was attached to it by having every person ever associated with the schools in any way plant a tree or shrub that fitted into the scheme.) The plants should be such as

to require little care. Also, arrangements should be made that in vacation the grounds may not be overrun by animals and the plants destroyed.

In all this, have in mind that, if the job is too great to accomplish in one session, make a start with a view to improvement and completion in subsequent sessions.

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2. G. P. Brown and Co., 38 Lovett Place, Beverly, Mass.

3. Cosmos Pictures, 119 W. 25th St., New York City.

4. Elson Prints, Belmont, Mass.

5. Perry Pictures Company, Malden, Mass.

6. The Prang Educational Company, New York City.

CLASS PROBLEMS

1. Write out a list of all the ways in which you may beautify your schoolroom, or the room with which you are most familiar.
2. Do the same for your school grounds.

CHAPTER XXIX

MEASURING THE SCHOOL

ONE of the most interesting movements in education, of recent years, is that of using standard scales and tests with reference to children's ability to learn and their school achievement. One of the phases of such measurements is usually discussed under the caption "Mental Tests," "Intelligence Tests," and the like. The other phase is discussed under the caption of "Educational Tests," "Achievement Tests," and the like. These scales, tests and measures, being *standard*, differ from ordinary school tests and examinations in that the former have a standardized procedure. Different people, understanding them thoroughly and using them carefully, get the same results. The same people, scoring them at different times to measure the same individuals, also get the same results. Such highly accurate results come from the standardized procedure of giving and the objective method of scoring. This degree of accuracy is not true of ordinary monthly tests and term examinations, as usually given and subjectively scored.

1. **Meaning of terms.** Standard tests and measures bring to us the use of certain new terms, which are here defined:

a. **Intelligence** is the ability to learn.¹ It is the capacity to adjust oneself adequately to relatively new

¹ Pintner, R.: *Intelligence Testing*, p. 57. Holt, 1923.

situations.² It is the power to make good responses from the standpoint of truth.³

b. Mental age. This term was first used by Binet, a Frenchman. It means "that degree of general mental ability which is possessed by the average child of corresponding chronological age"⁴ It is determined by the score made on a standard mental test. For example, a child making on such a test a score which has been made by the average child having a chronological age of twelve years is thus found to have a *mental age* of twelve years, whether that particular child's chronological age is 12, 10 or 15 years. So on for other scores made on a standard mental test. It is abbreviated into **M. A.**

c. Intelligence quotient. This term is often used in the public press, as well as in educational literature. It is frequently abbreviated into **I. Q.** or **I. Q.** It means the relation, or the ratio, of the mental age to the chronological age. It is obtained by expressing the mental age as the numerator and the chronological age as the denominator of a fraction. It is then simplified further by being reduced to a decimal fraction with two decimal places. Thus, a twelve-year-old child is found to have a mental age of twelve; his **I. Q.** would be written as $12/12$, or 1.00, or 100%, or more frequently 100. A twelve-year-old child, with a mental age of nine, would have an **I. Q.** of $9/12$, or 75. Similarly, a twelve-year-old child, with a mental age of fifteen, would have an **I. Q.** of $15/12$, or 125. So on for other chronological ages and mental ages.

d. Achievement. All tests and examinations have

² *Op. cit.*, p. 55.

³ *Op. cit.*, p. 56.

⁴ Terman, L. M.: *The Intelligence of School Children*, p. 7. Houghton Mifflin, 1919

attempted in the past to measure achievement in school subjects. We now know that, by such tests and examinations, achievement has been but poorly measured. Nevertheless, one may think of achievement as being that degree of quantity and quality of accomplishment in school subjects which is measurable on an objective scale or test. This definition does not deny that there may be certain by-products of achievement, as attitudes and ideals, not yet measurable on such a scale and possibly of greater importance than the achievement measured.

e. **Subject and educational ages.** In analogy to mental age, subject age may be defined as *that degree of accomplishment* in a school subject which is possessed by the average child of a given chronological age. Thus, one may have a reading age, a spelling age, an arithmetic age, and the like. If a child makes on a standard reading scale the score which has been made by the average child of ten years of chronological age, that child may be thought of as having ten years of reading age. Thus it goes for other subjects.

Educational age is determined, if the subjects are regarded as of equal importance, by getting the simple average of subject ages. If the subjects are regarded as of unequal importance and difficulty, the subject ages are weighted by multiplying each given subject age by a multiplier, which seems to express the relative importance of a subject in terms of another subject used as a base. Thus, if spelling be taken as the base; if, arithmetic is regarded as twice as important as spelling; if reading be regarded as three times as important as spelling, and so on for the other subjects,—the spelling age would be multiplied by 1, the arithmetic age by 2, the reading age by 3, and so on. Then, to get the educational age by this weighted average, instead of dividing the sum of the subject ages by the number of

subjects, one would divide the sum of these product-ages, by the sum of the numbers, used as multipliers to weight the subject-ages. Then educational age is an average of subject ages, whether the average be simple or weighted.

McCall¹ finds that it takes the average child about thirteen months to pass from the end of one grade to the end of the next grade. For example, the average child—

- enters first grade at 80 months of age;
- leaves first grade at 89 months of age;
- leaves second grade at 102 months of age;
- leaves third grade at 115 months of age;
- leaves fourth grade at 128 months of age;
- leaves fifth grade at 141 months of age;
- leaves sixth grade at 154 months of age;
- leaves seventh grade at 167 months of age;
- leaves eighth grade at 180 months of age; etc.

The child's subject ages and educational age, if he be progressing normally, may be expected to approximate the above age standards.

f. **Educational quotient.** This is the relation, or the ratio, of the educational age to the chronological age. It is abbreviated into E. Q., or E Q. Similarly, the subject quotient is the ratio of a subject age to the chronological age. It may be abbreviated into S. Q., or S Q.

g. **The achievement quotient.** This is the ratio of the subject age to the mental age, or the ratio of the educational age to the mental age. To get the achievement quotient, one must have employed both mental tests and educational tests. It is a very useful criterion of a child's work. If a child is making, and has previously been making, normal progress, his achievement quotient (abbreviated A. Q., or A Q) should always be approximately 100. This should be true, whether

¹McCall, W. A.: *How to Measure in Education*, p. 34, Macmillan, 1922.

he be old or young, bright or dull. If the mental age of a child of average opportunity shows him possessed of the ability of the average 12-year-old child, and if his educational age shows him as having the accomplishment in his school subjects of only the average 10-year-old child, his A Q is only 83. If healthy and strong, with no untoward circumstances to prevent accomplishment, the teacher may well prod that child to bring his A Q up to 100. If the A Q is above 100, that child may be, under parental pressure, over-working. This would be true, whether the child be old or young, bright or dull. The A Q has no reference to chronological age, nor to degree of brightness. It is a method of comparing a child's actual learning with his actual ability to learn.

Also, the A Q makes it possible to compare the teaching efficiency of two teachers. If each of two fifth grade teachers had thirty children in her room; if the average chronological age of these children is even eleven years for each room,—it would be unfair to judge one teacher as more efficient than the other merely upon basis of grades made. If educational tests should be given, and if the *average educational age* in Room A should be found to be twelve years, and in Room B to be eleven years, it would still be unfair to rate the teacher in Room A as superior to the one in Room B. If, in addition to the use of educational tests, mental tests should also be given, it might be found that the average mental age in Room A is twelve years and in Room B only eleven years. In that case, the teaching efficiency of the two teachers would be just exactly the same, for the average A Q of the children of both rooms would be just the same, namely, 100. Sometimes, the teacher whose children make the lower educational ages, but whose children also had the lower mental ages.

would be rated, all other things being equal, as the more efficient. This would be true, if the average A Q of her children were higher than the average A Q of the room having the brighter children.

2. Values realizable from the use of standard tests.

a. Non-standard measures inadequate and unreliable.

The old-time surveyor who either looked at a field or stepped it off, judged the field to contain so many acres "more or less." This was found unsatisfactory and gave way to the transit and the chain. People have not permitted the merchant to determine the number of ounces to go into a pound; nor to guess at the weight of a purchase by holding it in the hand. The merchant has not been permitted either to measure the length of a yard of cloth by using the length of his arm. People have wanted measurements of these things to be both *objective* (so other people could see how they were made) and *standard* (so that others using the same measures would get the same results). The ordinary school tests and examinations, made individually and rated subjectively, have been found to be far from *standard*, and to involve a high degree of subjective judgment. In ordinary tests different teachers may not give the same grades to the same paper. The same teacher sometimes gives a different mark to the same paper on reading it the second time. The author has already reported a sixth-grade arithmetic paper graded by forty seniors in a State Teachers' College, whose grades on the paper ranged from 14 to 58 with a median of 35. Kelly¹ and Starch² report many other such instances.

¹ Kelly, F. J.: *School Marks*, pp. 51-55, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1914.

² Starch, D. W.: *Educational Measurements*, pp. 1-25, Macmillan, 1915.

b. **Standard measures adequate and reliable.** Just because sixteen ounces are accepted by all as the standard pound avoirdupois, just because twelve inches are accepted as standard for one foot, such and similar standard measures become absolutely adequate and reliable. All who use them to measure the same quantities get the same result. Such measures are verifiable, because they are *standard*.

It means much to teachers now to have instruments, in the form of standard scales and tests, which measure in the school situation almost as accurately as other types of instruments measure in other fields. Such standard scales and tests are found in the form of intelligence tests, which are used to measure children's ability to learn. They are found in the elementary school subjects of spelling, writing, reading, arithmetic, composition, geography, history, drawing, as means of measuring school achievement in these subjects. They are found in the high school subjects of algebra, home economics, English composition, history, grammar, biology, physics, chemistry, general science. French, Latin, Spanish, spelling and other subjects to measure achievement in high school.

Mental age, while it is not, and should not be, the only basis for classification, is probably the best single basis for gradation. The intelligence quotient indicates the relative speed of progress to be expected. It remains fairly constant from year to year. A child with an I Q of 90 will have an I Q of very close to, if not exactly, 90 the rest of his school life. One with an I Q of 125 will continue from year to year to have approximately 125. The 90 child, when doing his best, will lack about ten per cent of being able to do as much as

the average child. The teacher should respect that deficiency and be patient with him. The child with an I Q of 125 can do 25 per cent more than the average child, and should ordinarily be required to do it, whether in the form of a more enriched curriculum, or in more rapid school progress. The *educational age* is also accepted by some authorities as just as good a single basis or better for gradation as the mental age. The *educational quotient* shows the growth in educational age relative to chronological age. The values of the *achievement quotient* as a criterion for judging the goodness of a child's school work and as a criterion, when the average A Q is taken for all the children, for comparing the efficiencies of different teachers have been previously set forth.

3. The use of standard tests and measurements.

There is not space in this volume to give a course in standard tests and scales. They have been developed to a high point in the science of education. There is no single book that will give a beginning teacher complete directions as to how to give and score the test papers, nor to interpret the results of all the tests which one would need to employ. Even if there were such a book, the beginning teacher is advised against starting out on his or her own responsibility to put in a program of standard testing. It will be different, if the beginning teacher has an expert supervisor to direct the use of standard tests and to interpret the findings. Also, if the beginning teacher has previously had two good courses of not less than thirty class-periods each, one in mental tests and one in educational tests, he or she is in position to utilize this very excellent device of standard tests.

Children are much more variable in their several characteristics than most people are aware of. Ten-

year-old children may actually be found scattered all the way from the kindergarten to the tenth grade. Children of the same school grade may be found to vary in chronological age over a span of several years, as $8\frac{1}{2}$ to 15. They may be found in a single school grade, having I Q's varying from 60 to 150. They may be found in a single fifth grade varying in mental age from 9 to 15 years. They may be found in a single ninth grade, varying all the way, in chronological age from 13 to 19 years; in mental age, from 12 to 19; in intelligence quotient, from 70 to 150. Eighth grade children, taking a standard test in arithmetic, may be found to make scores of from 0 examples to 19 examples in the time given. Notwithstanding the high utility of standard tests and scales, as means by which to deal more efficiently with these highly variable children, nevertheless, the beginning teacher is hereby advised against the use of these tests and scales, except under the following circumstances:

a. After having had previously two good courses, one in mental tests and scales and one in educational tests and scales; or

b. Under guidance of a supervisor, principal or superintendent, who knows how to give and score these tests, and also what to do with the results, when found.

The data supplied by mental and educational tests and scales are almost indispensable. Nevertheless, the data ascertained through other means, as secured by previously existing means, must not be ignored. The findings from educational and mental tests simply afford data additional to all other data about pupils had from other sources and means. Standard tests supplement; they do not supplant.

In view of the very great importance of standard tests and scales in modern education, the beginning

teacher will seek an early opportunity to learn their technique and to understand the principles of interpreting the results secured by their use.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. Distinguish two sorts of standard tests. How important do standard tests appear?

Define: Intelligence;

Mental age;

Intelligence quotient;

Achievement;

Subject age;

Educational age;

Educational quotient;

Achievement quotient.

Give the respective ages in months at which the average child leaves each grade.

What has that to do with other sorts of ages discussed in this chapter?

How important is the A Q?

2. What values are realizable from the use of standard tests? Explain each value.
3. What uses are served by standard tests? Under what circumstances should a beginning teacher undertake to use standard tests and measures?

CHAPTER XXX

EXCELLENCES AND ERRORS IN MANAGEMENT

A. Excellences in Management to Achieve

1. **Learning children's names.** The sooner you can know all the children by name the better you can manage them. If you will make for yourself a map of the room, locating each child, and if you will study the child's name in connection with his room location, it will insure your earlier learning them.

2. **Punctuality and regularity of the teacher.** It is needful that teachers arrive at school fully fifteen minutes ahead of time for opening. This insures the control of the children from their first arrival. It is positively inexcusable for a teacher to be tardy at school, unless for a very unusual cause.

3. **Sympathy with and consideration for the pupil** are excellences of high order. They are ways to the hearts of pupils. Cultivate the ability, not only to see pupils' conduct from the standpoint of the teacher, but also from the standpoint of the pupils. Encourage the children to have faith in themselves. Be tactful in dealing with children. Let them feel that you regard them as your friends. Show your interest in their friends. Keep yourself on good speaking terms with them. Let them come to feel that you, though strict and firm, are nevertheless just, fair and kind to them. Sincerity, manifested in dealing with children, kindness and patience, in combination with firmness and certainty,

make for substantial control of a desirable sort.

4. **Scholarship.** This means knowledge, even to mastery. When children note that you "speak as one having authority," it arouses in them a respect for you that is potent in managing. Scholarship comes from previous mastery of subjects, supplemented by thorough review of the lessons the night before you teach them.

5. **Requiring obedience.** Let your children come early to learn once for all that you do no bluffing. Commands and directions should be given in a congenial and non-antagonizing way, but they must be complied with.

6. **Order before teaching.** Utilize your control signals or other devices for getting attention and order. Never begin teaching while the children are moving around or talking. If the lesson calls for discussion, have order in the discussion. Do not let just anybody speak out just at any time. One must not break in on another. Let him raise his hand for recognition before he can proceed. Reduce your minor details of procedure to routine through signals; require response to them; have desks cleared by use of them; give children time to respond to one signal before calling another. *Get order first; then teach.*

7. **Picking the natural leaders early and using them.** If you cultivate and win those children who are leaders, and get them to following your directions, soon the rest will be following right along.

8. **The use of honor rolls.** These may be made out on Bristol board. For example, there may be as many honor rolls as there are features which you would emphasize. In spelling, for instance, every time a child spells all words correctly in the assignment, there might be added a star by his name on the "Spelling Honor

Roll." Again the use of certain bad English forms may be eliminated by putting the different rows in competition with one another in not using those forms. If a row goes through the day without using one of those listed incorrect forms, that row gets on the "Star Speakers Board" a star. The same thing may be done for deportment, or other feature of school work which is to be emphasized. The final aim is 100% accuracy. It may be enhanced by competition between rows, rooms, or schools.

9. Winning time off. To let children win time off is greatly better than keeping them after school. If the time set for dismissal be made officially one half-hour later than the teacher desires to dismiss, she may say to the children that any pupil (or any row, if that seems better) having every lesson satisfactorily recited, having maintained an entirely satisfactory deportment, including marching in and out, may be excused a half-hour earlier than the time set on the program for dismissal.

10. The use of children in making rules has already been mentioned in Chapter XV, 3, *c*.

11. The seating of reciting classes at the front. If you can have your reciting class at the front, it has exercised them a bit to come; the studying children are less disturbed by the reciting. The teacher should sit or stand in front of the class, so as to keep an eye, too, on the studying children. It is a mistake to sit too much. Moving around by the teacher is an aid to the attention by the children. Children should be required to stand to recite. * This makes it easier for the other children to hear. Children should understand that it is bad manners to break in when another is reciting; to make ugly faces after reciting must not be permitted.

12. Quiet work and movement. Basedow proposed to conduct a school with "motion and noise." Nevertheless, movement and activity may be had without noise and disturbance. The children can walk on tip-toe. It is not necessary for them to walk heavily. There must be a minimum of loud coughing, dropping books, and the like.

13. Gymnastics between classes. Occasionally, for recreation as well as for exercise, let the children have a bit of gymnastics. Such may sometimes just for a minute be thrown right into the midst of a recitation. It makes for attention and for the removal of nerve twitches.

14. Cultivation of voice. By care the teacher can greatly improve the use of the voice. It may come to exhibit more volume and dignity. Instead of trying to talk more loudly than the noisiest pupil in school, require the pupils to work quietly and then you can talk in a natural tone of voice. Avoid talking in a loud, rasping voice.

15. Getting attention before making announcements or beginning to teach. Insist upon and require this, so that what you say will not have to be repeated. Do not relax on this requirement. The signals will help you.

16. Good discipline when the teacher is absent. There are a few teachers whose children deport themselves absolutely satisfactorily when the teachers step out of the room for a few minutes. That represents the acme of good feeling between teacher and taught. It is a very high tribute to the spiritual influence of the teacher over the pupils.

17. Putting emphasis on the positive side of conduct. This is more potent than to put it on the negative side. Give the children many things "to do"; have as few

for them "not to do" as possible. As long as you keep children busy *doing*, there is less opportunity for them to get into mischief.

18. Yard supervision. This is an excellence of high order. It prevents most fights between boys. It insures children's playing fairly. It is not to be dictatorial but advisory. It is many times more valuable than spending the time indoors, looking over papers.

19. Keeping parents informed. Parents have a right to know how their children are getting on in school, both in their learning and in their deportment. No child should be permitted to commit one bad deed after another, until corporal punishment or suspension be resorted to, without the parents' having been informed of this bad conduct.

20. System. Systematize your management by routinizing the minor details. Give everything its proper place. Hold steadfastly to that arrangement. Re-read the chapter on "Routinizing the Minor Details of School Work."

B. Errors in Management to Avoid

1. Permitting children to whisper to each other or to study together. To begin it is to sow the wind, later to reap the whirlwind. Whispering soon becomes talking aloud. Studying together soon becomes the opportunity to neglect studying and to talk about everything except the work assigned.

2. The teacher's attending to outside duties in school hours. This refers to writing letters, sewing, knitting and other things not relevant to the educational work of the classroom. Soon a mother, whose child has not done well, adversely criticizes: "If that teacher had been attending to her teaching, my child would not have failed."

3. **Language mannerisms.** It is good management as well as good method to avoid such expressions, numerous repeated by those who have them as habits, as "ander," "and," "isn't it?" "wasn't he?" "aren't they?" "don't you think?" "didn't it?" "kinder," "all right," "who can tell?" "said," "well," "what can you say?" etc., etc. They soon get on the nerves of children and become occasions for unnecessary annoyance.

4. **Social attentions to lady teachers by larger boys among the pupils.** Young lady teachers must make up their minds in advance not to accept the attention of, nor permit it to be shown them by, the larger school boys. A teacher's usefulness is very much reduced when the people in the community begin to say, "That teacher is of no account. She just goes over there to be courted by those big boys," who are her pupils or are pupils in another teacher's room.

5. **Answering notes.** This refers to those notes written by angry parents who thus at long range give the teacher a scolding. Read such notes, enjoy them, put them away as souvenirs, but do not answer them. Then let it pass, as if nothing had happened.

6. **Ridicule, satire, sarcasm, nagging, slighting remarks about children.** It is not only bad teaching method, but a management error of the first magnitude to engage in such practices. It should be beneath a teacher's dignity to overflow with temper, when dealing with either children or parents. The by-products of these practices are *hate*, *revenge*, and other undesirable attitudes on the part of the children. Avoid crankiness, nervousness and giving away to anger. Do not scold children for absences, saying, "That's what you get for your absence." Such makes a child sorry, not glad, that he came back to school.

7. **"Banging the bell" for quiet.** Sometimes the

teacher hisses, or stamps the floor. Do none of these things. Begin by requiring sufficient quiet for good work. If you let children begin to get noisy, and if you begin such methods to restrain them, more and more intense methods must be used, until perfect bedlam ensues. Use your control signals, and require response. Deal firmly and unmistakably with the few variant individuals until order is established and then keep it so.

8. Watching, rather than trusting. This does not mean that you are to shut your eyes nor wink at wrongdoing. If children feel that you are watching them, they will seek ever more to cheat or otherwise to do wrong. If they feel that you are trusting them, it strengthens the little spark of honor which they have.

9. Forming habits to be broken later. Such are permitting whispering at first to be forbidden later, permitting tardiness to be forbidden later, being lax in discipline to get strict later, and the like. Begin now as you are going to hold out; hold out as you begin.

10. Letting children make faces while you speak, or while they speak. Let them know the first time it occurs that it is a disrespect and an impertinence which you will not tolerate.

11. Forgetting requirements. Here is carelessness, indeed. Have but few rules. Master them yourself. Remember them. Enforce them. Let children learn, and come to respect in childhood, law and order. But you must respect it first.

12. Letting children leave their seats or go from the room without permission. It is one thing to argue for freedom in the schoolroom and another to recognize that the best freedom is freedom under law. It is the right of all to freedom to work undisturbed by the individual disturbance-maker, rather than the right of the

individual to create disturbance and thus to prevent all the rest from realizing their right to education.

13. Arguing with pupils over school requirements.

Let these requirements be well explained and understood. After that they are to be obeyed for the good of all; they are not afterward open to argument. Let your pupil understand what you expect, and require that he come up to it. The time has come when the teacher must say in no unmistakable tone, "Will you, or will you not, comply with this rule?" If he complies, all is well. If he does not, the time has arrived for a settlement that is to be final.

14. Letting children leave the school grounds without permission. Do not permit general going off the grounds without permission, except when children have to go home for lunch. Keep them within the radius of your control. If one leaves the grounds, and is run over by an automobile, you will be blamed. You will also be blamed for mischief into which he or she may fall.

15. Much keeping in after school. Have no keeping in at recess. Have only a very moderate amount of it after school. The better the teacher the more nearly will all work be properly done inside of school. It is not a recommendation of a teacher that he or she has a great deal of keeping in after school.

16. Giving orders, without having them obeyed. Such a procedure is positively deëducational. Give orders for no other purpose than that they shall be obeyed promptly. Do not try to teach without order, first secured, and then maintained throughout the recitation. Do not talk above the noise of a noisy class, nor attempt to drown it by making a greater noise. This does not mean forcing children to be perfectly still. Do not lose sight of your class. Do not stand stock still, letting

your class run away from you. Are you the master? Assert your authority. Do not let children be continually speaking out without permission or recognition. It is a serious error to command, if you do not require response. Do not wait too long, either, for a response. Use your signals and require prompt responses. In some schoolrooms you hear the teacher saying, "Get quiet," "Let's not have too much noise." "Everyone attention!" "Clear desks," "Sit up straight," "When will you get quiet?" yet the noise goes on with no perceptible diminution. Such a procedure is silly. Establish your authority and maintain it. If given children cannot submit to it, they have no place in your school. Do not let exuberant children become nuisances.

17. Undirected play in the schoolroom. This occurs frequently on rainy days. The great danger is in the possible breaking of desk castings and other furniture. There are indoor games which you can teach and direct and which do not involve running, pulling, pushing, shoving.

18. Repressing childhood. The foregoing frequently repeated admonition to strict and firm discipline does not involve repression. It is not to deny an opportunity for legitimate and healthful expression. It is in no sense to advocate that "children should be seen, not heard." Let children's individuality be expressed and their personality cultivated, but not at the expense of other pupils.

19. Sending children to the board without knowing in advance what they are to do. In your daily preparations for teaching a given lesson, decide in advance whom you will send to the board and what you will have them do. Make this assignment to the pupils be-

fore you send them to the board. Let everything be done decently and in order.

20. Giving those left at the recitation seat nothing to do is just as bad an error. While those at the board may have each a separate exercise, those at their seats may frequently perform the same exercise or example. Keep all members of the class busy throughout the recitation.

21. Giving a second, third or fourth command or signal, before the first has been complied with. When you use signals or commands, require prompt response by everyone to whom they apply. Get your first command executed, before proceeding to another. It is an error to give several commands without requiring compliance with your first command.

22. Permitting a discourteous attitude by pupils in class. This refers to their standing to recite in a swaggering sort of way, their trying to say things in a smart sort of way, their attempt to be funny in an irrelevant way, their poking of fun at the one reciting by those sitting, exhibiting bad class manners. Do not permit such. The pupils will go no farther than you let them; but give them an inch and they will take a yard.

23. Letting a pupil off, when you call on him to recite in class. Give pupils to understand in advance that you will hold them responsible for all assignments. Do not vary from that requirement, except in the case of illness or other simply *impossible circumstances*. If the pupils are not ready to recite, when called on, let them understand that the whole lesson, not merely the part missed, must be made good later by the one failing, as a right to which he is entitled and upon which he must realize.

24. Material prizes. While parents may offer their

children prizes of money value for excellences in school work, it is inadvisable for the teacher to do so. If teachers offer prizes, they should be emblematical and immaterial. Diplomas at graduation, promotion tickets at the end of the school term, perfect spelling tickets, "Neither Absent nor Tardy" certificates for absolutely perfect attendance for a whole session, are samples of immaterial prizes. They are highly valuable to the winner, but not worth a penny to others not winners. If material prizes in the form of money, books, medals, scholarships, are offered by others, entrance into such contests should be voluntary, not required.

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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. Take the excellences in management and also the errors, as proposed by the author; criticize each favorably and unfavorably.
2. Make a list of other excellences in management, as they occur to you, which teachers should seek to achieve.
3. Make a list of other errors in management which you believe teachers should seek to avoid.
4. What differences do you see in the meanings of the two terms: *methods* and *management*.

CHAPTER XXXI

CLOSING THE SCHOOL

1. Commencement programs. There is no school, however small or however large, which may not have a splendid, dignified closing at the end of the session. (In the old-time rural school, the teacher was expected to "treat" the children with candy on the last day. If the teacher failed, the children would combine forces and take the teacher down to the stream and dip him into the water.) There may well be an evening or evenings in which the children give entertainments. Such include recitations, essays, dialogues, debates, songs, drills, declamations, orations, according to opportunity and preference. Endeavor to have every child take some part in one of the programs, even if in nothing but a group song. The children can help you in planning for the closing program.

Much rehearsing is necessary for successful programs. Some pieces on the program, as songs, or recitations, may be rehearsed in school time, without encroaching upon the school program seriously. Drills and the like can best be rehearsed outside of school hours. Rehearse several times for safety, even after it seems sufficient.

Avoid long pieces. It is better to have many short pieces. Thus you can have a large number of children take part; and still keep your total program short. Its total length should never exceed one hour and a half. It will be better if only an hour long.

When you select the date for your program, consult

others and choose carefully the hour at which you will begin. If you should set it at 7:30 p.m., announce and let it be understood that 7:30 p.m. *means* 7:30 (not 7:31, nor 7:35). Select your time; allow enough margin of time ahead for emergencies; have everything ready so that there will be nothing to fix or to arrange that evening. Then, on the very minute you have announced, draw the curtain back and begin at once. If the first one on the program is not present, use the next one. Take things as they come; do not be embarrassed over unexpected happenings. Put in the next thing and go ahead. Have appointed children to serve as ushers, to draw the curtain, to do the other several things, each one needed set to a task for a time, when he is not needed to perform. You yourself be sure to have everything out of the way so that you may get one or more good hours of rest and relaxation before your program begins.

It is well to have an exhibit of work one day near or at the close of school. Let such a display include work in all subjects. Let it include some work from every child. It is a mistake to confine exhibits to the work of just a few brilliant children. You will have done the best you can by every child. Let the work of his hands be exhibited. Give his parents no excuse to feel that he has been neglected.

2. Getting ready to leave. Your year is now drawing to a close. You will make a mistake, if you plan to hurry off. Do not plan to rush away immediately. There is the register to complete, the report to the superintendent to make out, the children's reports to prepare. Careful promotion and classification lists must be made. The letter of instructions to the next teacher must be written about your children. This note may include the points reached in the children's several text-books, with your advice for starting off next year. They have

been your children for a year; you love them; their next year's interests must be conserved. Things must be put in place at school. All borrowed articles used in your entertainment programs must be religiously returned with thanks. Do not merely trust that the children will do this; *see* that they do it. Things at your boarding house must be put and left in place.

You will need time to call on many of your friends to say goodbye, especially those who have helped the school in any way. You will call to say goodbye to the members of the school board, and thank them for their confidence in you, and for the backing which they gave you through the year.

So you see much time is needed to close out everything properly. Eschew all social engagements for the last week, to save your time for the extra work. Plan to stay long enough after your last exercises to be sure that nothing is left undone.

3. Coming back. Yes, you are planning to come back next fall. Many teachers so magnify the unpleasant features, the little difficulties, and the like, that they plan to teach elsewhere next year. "The fool's eyes are in the ends of the earth." The teaching fool believes that there are no difficulties in some other community. Remember that there are some problems to solve, some difficulties to encounter, in every community. You are already familiar with those in the community which you are leaving. You will know next year better how to deal with them. Make up your mind that, if the people are satisfied with you, you will become worthy of a higher position before you change. A young teacher will do well to try to remain in the same community three years, before moving. School boards do not like a teacher who cannot stay at the same school more than one year. They suspect that there

is something lacking about that teacher. Besides, other communities also have as many difficulties and problems as this one. Plan to return next fall.

4. The spiritual outcomes from the teaching service. If a teacher has rendered an honorable and an efficient service, a very certain outcome is *growth*, intellectual, moral, civic, and religious. This is an outcome to be valued highly. It is an augmentation of your own character. As you have studied your subjects day by day to teach them, you have taken a big step forward toward the mastery of them. As you have helped the children settle their problems with one another, on a basis of the moral principles underlying those problems, your moral fibre has been strengthened. As you have contemplated the work of your hands and that of building citizens of the State of To-morrow, your civic consciousness has been quickened. As you have contemplated your work as concerning the welfare not only for time, but also for eternity, has not your religious conscience become even more sensitive to religious values? Have you not been conscious of your own growth through your first year of teaching service? Have you not perceived the growth in your own pupils that enabled you to lift your children from the beginning of a grade up to the beginning of the next grade?

Another spiritual outcome is the consciousness of entering upon a noble vocation, namely that of *changing people for the better*. When a teacher can but think that he or she thus becomes a co-worker with God in the building of a better world, need he or she dwell upon any difficulties, inconveniences or low remuneration? There is no greater vocation than teaching except parenthood. Jesus himself was a teacher.

Still another spiritual outcome is the making of friendships of boys and girls and of their parents and

friends, which abide throughout life. Appreciation of the true will be expressed in better living. Often gratitude is personally expressed as through Plato to Socrates, and as by Alexander the Great to Aristotle. The affectionate and grateful esteem of teachers by their pupils, into whose hearts you have found a way, is one of the most potent and satisfying consequents that come to workers of any vocation.

Last, but not least, among the spiritual outcomes is the approval of one's own conscience, as a teacher pours out his or her very soul into that of the rising generation. Some business men, in later life, may regret the methods employed by them in piling up ill-gotten gains, and may attempt to distribute much of it back before their death. The teacher, on the other hand, has been distributing his or her wealth all along the way, beginning with the first school taught. The teacher's stock in trade is of the higher values. How happy should one be to esteem himself or herself as called of God to be co-worker with Him in the dissemination of such values.

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3. Page, David: *Theory and Practice of Teaching*, XVI. A. B. Co., 1885.
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CLASS PROBLEMS

1. Write out a detailed plan for the whole of commencement in your school.
2. Give the arguments for and against coming back to teach in the same school another year.
3. Make a list in detail of all that must receive your personal attention before you leave the community. Indicate how you will care for each item.
4. Make an enlarged list of the values to be realized by the sincere, honorable and efficient worker in the teaching vocation.

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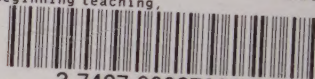
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